THE

GENERAL REVIEW.

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ART. I.—*Biographical Memoirs of Lord Viscount Nelson, &c. &c. &c. With Observations Critical and Explanatory. By John Charnock, Esq. F. S. A. Author of the Biographia Navalis, and the History of Marine Architecture, &c. &c. Octavo.* 497 *Pages, with a Portrait of Nelson, and six other Plates. Price* 10*s.* 6*d.* Symonds. 1806.

THE heroic character whose actions are recorded in these memoirs will have many biographers. The author before us observes, 'Fortunate is it for those who undertake the task, that it is their lot to pen the splendid details of a life so spent, and a character so constituted, as to leave them in perfect security from the influence of prejudice or partiality; those pitfalls of error to which the historian and biographer are so generally exposed.' The actions of military men have, in this respect, great advantage over those of the statesman, which both in their motives and consequences are almost always of a disputable nature. The services rendered by this illustrious admiral to his country were of no ambiguous kind, and the benefits were not more conspicuous than the rare talents and exertions by which they were obtained.

The author in his preface candidly acknowledges the work he now offers, to be a performance hastily written for the purpose of gratifying the immediate curiosity of the public, and claims for himself 'little merit beyond that of being a faithful collector and reporter of much authentic intelligence, that had been before widely scattered under the public eye.' Mr. Charnock has bestowed so large a portion of his time and labour upon naval subjects, that he must be better qualified than most men to make such a collection; and what he has amassed is presented to the reader with order and connection.

Horatio Nelson was the third son of the rev. Edmund Nelson, rector of Burnham Thorpe, in the county of Norfolk, and of

Catharine, daughter of Dr. Maurice Suckling, one of the prebendaries of Westminster. He was born on the 29th of September, 1758. At 12 years of age he entered upon a sea life, according to these memoirs, 'not strictly in unison with his own inclination.' The first ship in which he served was the *Raisonnable*, of 64 guns, at that time commanded by captain Maurice Suckling, his maternal uncle. The author has traced the early steps of Mr. Nelson, not minutely, but without any chasm. In every one we feel an interest, but shall notice only a few of them.

In 1773, in consequence of his own solicitations at that early period, he served as midshipman in the expedition towards the North Pole, under the command of the hon. captain Phipps afterwards lord Mulgrave. Soon after his return from the North Sea, he sailed to the East Indies in the Sea-horse commanded by captain George Farmer, an officer of great and just celebrity, who afterwards lost his life in a most severely fought action between the Quebec, an English frigate, and the Surveillante, a French frigate of superior size and number of guns. 'The climate of India ill suiting the constitution of Mr. Nelson, which, strange to say, was then, and ever continued to be, extremely delicate,' he obtained leave to quit that station, and returned to England.

In April 1777, he received a lieutenant's commission, which appointed him second in the Lowestoffe frigate in the West Indies, under the command of captain William Locker. The author has quoted from the Naval Chronicle the following anecdote, which, as it afforded no weak presage of the character which afterwards shone with such pre-eminence, we will likewise copy. 'In a strong gale of wind and a heavy sea, the Lowestoffe captured an American letter of marque. The captain ordered the first lieutenant to board her, which he accordingly attempted, but was not able to effect, owing to the tremendous sea running. On his return to the ship, captain Locker exclaimed, "Have I then no officer who can board the prize?" On hearing this, the master immediately ran to the gangway in order to jump into the boat, when lieutenant Nelson stopped him, saying, "It is my turn now—if I come back, it will be yours."'

In June 1779, Mr. Nelson was advanced to the rank of post captain, and appointed to the command of the Hinchinbrooke, of 20 guns, then in the West Indies. His bravery and conduct were distinguished on several occasions during the time he commanded that ship, till, by extraordinary exertions and the weakness of his constitution, he was again obliged to withdraw from a hot climate. He returned to England about the close of the year 1780. In August 1781 his health was so much re-established as to enable him to take the command of the Albemarle frigate. In April, the following year, his ship was ordered to cruise off Boston in America; on which station he fell in with three French ships of the line and a frigate, and was chased by them. By a very bold and hazardous measure, and by the intre-

pidity of his conduct, the particular circumstances of which are related in these memoirs, he saved his ship from falling into the hands of the enemy.

During the peace which followed the American war, captain Nelson passed five years without professional employment, 'which was the longest relaxation he experienced from the fatigues of public service after his first entrance into the navy.' At the breaking out of the war with France, in the beginning of the year 1793, captain Nelson was appointed to the command of the Agamemnon of 64 guns, which was ordered to the Mediterranean station. The actions performed by him at the siege of Bastia, at the blockade of Leghorn, at Porto-Ferrajo, and some other of his actions at that time, in which an extraordinary degree of active courage and skill was manifested, are mentioned by the author only in general terms. In April 1796 he was appointed by the commander in chief on that station to the temporary rank of commodore

The distinguished share which he took in the battle off Cape St. Vincent, in February 1797, between the British fleet commanded by admiral sir John Jervis and the Spanish fleet, is more circumstantially related. In this engagement we see realised, in its most exalted state, the spirit of chivalry so much the boast of early times, and actions performed not less extraordinary than the most wonderful that are related in the romances of the middle ages.

The commodore, who had been absent on other service, joined the fleet under admiral sir John Jervis on February the 13th, only one day before they came in sight of the Spanish fleet, and hoisted his broad pendant on board the Captain of 74 guns. The following extract which we give from these memoirs contains a most valuable account of the action, being

—'a memorandum made by commodore Nelson himself, presently after the encounter, in which, with his customary delicacy with respect to himself, he attributes the highest possible praise to those employed under his orders, who aided in effecting the glorious achievement, but is totally silent as to those energies produced and raised to maturity in his own mind, which gave birth to so glorious and brilliant a conclusion.

'"At one P. M." observes the commodore, "the Captain having passed the sternmost of the enemy's ships, which formed their van, and part of their centre, consisting of seventeen sail of the line, they on the larboard, we on the starboard tack, the admiral made the signal to tack in succession; but perceiving all the Spanish ships to bear up before the wind, evidently with an intention of forming their line, going large, and joining their separated divisions, at that time engaged with some of our centre ships, or flying from us—to prevent either of their schemes from taking place, I ordered the ship to be wore, and passing between the Diadem and Excellent, at a quarter past one o'clock was engaged with the headmost, and, of course, leewardmost

of the Spanish division. The ships which I knew, were the Santissima Trinidada, of one hundred and thirty-six guns; San Josef, of one hundred and twelve; Salvador del Mundo, of one hundred and twelve; San Nicholas, eighty; another first rate, and a seventy-four, names unknown.

'"I was immediately joined, and most nobly supported, by the Culloden, captain Troubridge. The Spanish fleet, not wishing, I suppose, to have a decisive battle, hauled to the wind on the larboard tack, which brought the ships above mentioned to be the leewardmost and sternmost ships in their fleet. For near an hour, I believe (but I do not pretend to be correct as to time), did the Culloden and Captain support this not only apparently but really unequal contest; when the Blenheim passing between us and the enemy, gave us a respite, and sickened the Dons. At this time the Salvador del Mundo, and San Isidro, dropped astern, and were fired into in a masterly style by the Excellent, captain Collingwood, who compelled the Isidro to hoist English colours; and I thought the large ship, Salvador del Mundo, had also struck: but captain Collingwood, disdaining the parade of taking possession of a vanquished enemy, most gallantly pushed up with every sail set, to save his old friend and messmate, who was to appearance in a critical state. The Blenheim being ahead, the Culloden crippled and astern, the Excellent ranged up within two feet of the San Nicholas, giving a most tremendous fire. The San Nicholas luffing up, the San Josef fell on board her; and the Excellent passing on for the Santissima Trinidada, the Captain resumed her station abreast of them, and close alongside. At this time the Captain having lost her fore-top-mast, not a sail, shroud, nor rope left, her wheel away, and incapable of further service in the line or in chase, I directed captain Miller to put the helm a-starboard, and, calling for the boarders, ordered them to board. The soldiers of the sixty-ninth, with an alacrity which will ever do them credit, and lieutenant Pearson of the same regiment, were almost the foremost on this service. The first man who jumped into the enemy's mizzen-chains was captain Berry, late my first lieutenant, (captain Miller was in the act of going also, but I directed him to remain); he was supported by our spritsail yard, which hooked in the mizzen rigging. A soldier of the sixty-ninth regiment having broken the upper quarter gallery window, I jumped in myself, and was followed by others as fast as possible. I found the cabin doors fastened, and some Spanish officers fired their pistols; but having broke open the doors, the soldiers fired, and the Spanish brigadier (commodore, with a distinguishing pendant) fell as retreating to the quarter-deck. I pushed immediately onwards for the quarter-deck, where I found captain Berry in possession of the poop, and the Spanish ensign hauling down. I passed with my people, and lieutenant Pearson, on the larboard gang-way to the forecastle, where I met two or three Spanish officers, prisoners to my seamen: they delivered me their swords. A fire of pistols or musquets opening from the admiral's stern-gallery of the San Josef, I directed the soldiers to fire into her stern; and calling to captain Miller, ordered him to send more men into the San Nicholas, and directed my people to board the first rate, which was done in an instant; captain Berry assisting me into the main chains. At this moment a Spanish officer looked over the quarter-deck rail, and said they surrendered. From this most

welcome intelligence, it was not long before I was on the quarter-deck, where the Spanish captain, with a bow, presented me his sword, and said the admiral was dying of his wounds. I asked him on his honour, if the ship surrendered. He declared she was; on which I gave him my hand, and desired him to call on his officers and ship's company and tell them of it; *and, on the quarter-deck of a Spanish first-rate, extravagant as the story may seem, did I receive the swords of vanquished Spaniards, which, as I received, I gave to William Fearney, one of my bargemen,* who put them with the greatest *sang froid* under *his arm.* I was surrounded by captain Berry, lieutenant Pearson of the sixty-ninth regiment, John Sykes, John Thompson, Francis Cooke (all old Agamemnons), and several other brave men, seamen and soldiers. Thus fell these ships.

'"N. B. In boarding the San Nicholas, I believe we lost about seven killed and ten wounded; and about twenty Spaniards lost their lives by a foolish resistance. None were lost, I believe, in boarding the San Josef."' P. 74.

This account was transmitted by the commodore to his friend captain William Locker with a letter, dated Feb. 21st, 1797, a copy of which is inserted in an appendix. Mr. Charnock has added a copy of the remarks in the log-book of the Captain, commodore Nelson's ship, on the 14th and 15th of February, and likewise an account written by lieutenant-colonel Drinkwater. The ships captured in this action were the Salvador del Mundo, of 112 guns; the San Josef, of 112; the San Nicholas, of 84; and the San Isidro, of 74.

The author remarks, that 'each of the triumphs obtained by this noble person over the foes to his country has rested entirely on the exertions of his own abilities and strength of mind, without being indebted to those fortuitous circumstances which have at different periods decided the fate of battles and of nations.'

The author has entered into an inquiry, for which of the two the greater abilities are requisite; to form a consummate general, or a great naval commander. He thinks 'superior energies are required in the mind of a naval commander beyond those of the man who may be placed at the head of armies.' We esteem it a great merit in these memoirs that they are written with that sincere admiration for the hero of them which his actions might be expected to inspire. In the discussion of the question just mentioned, Mr. Charnock has shown himself a well-disposed advocate on the side of the navy. The question, however, was unnecessary for the purpose intended by the author; and we are glad to steer clear of it. The fame of lord Nelson is built on a foundation too elevated to be affected by such distinctions; for it will be readily acknowledged, that he possessed in the most eminent degree, all the principal talents, dispositions, and powers of mind, necessary to the formation of either one or the other character.

Soon after the victory over the Spanish fleet near Cape St. Vincent, the commodore was promoted to the rank of rear-

admiral. At the blockade of Cadiz, in the summer of the same year, the personal prowess of admiral Nelson was called forth by an accidental night encounter of boats, and perhaps never appeared to greater advantage: but the account is read with a painful anxiety at seeing a life so valuable exposed to such great hazard on an occasion comparatively of so little importance. The author has embellished his work with a plate representing this night encounter.

The next action related is the attack on Teneriffe, the most unfortunate of all the expeditions in which the heroic Nelson was engaged. At this place he lost his right arm, and on that account returned to England. Nevertheless, early in the year 1798 he again hoisted his flag, and sailed for the Mediterranean. In June 1798 he was in that sea with a fleet of 13 sail of the line under his command, steering for Alexandria in pursuit of the French fleet. The account given of this pursuit in these Memoirs is extremely interesting. The ardour and activity of the admiral unabated by disappointment; the state of habitual preparation in which his fleet was kept; his vigilant attention to every circumstance which could conduce to success; his practice of communicating and explaining his plans to the captains of his fleet; these and many other circumstances continually show the great commander. It is related—

'"The admiral had, and it appeared most justly, the highest opinion of, and placed the firmest reliance on, the valour and conduct of every captain in his squadron. It was his practice during the whole of his cruise, whenever the weather and circumstances would permit, to have his captains on board the Vanguard, where he would fully develope to them his own ideas of the different and best modes of attack, and such plans as he proposed to execute upon falling in with the enemy, whatever their position or situation might be, by night or by day. There was no possible position in which they could be found, that he did not take into his calculation, and for the most advantageous attack of which, he had not digested and arranged the best possible disposition of the force which he commanded: with the masterly ideas of their admiral, therefore, on the subject of naval tactics, every one of the captains of his squadron was most thoroughly acquainted; and upon surveying the situation of the enemy, they could ascertain with precision, what were the ideas and intention of their commander, without the aid of any further instructions: by which means signals became almost unnecessary, much time was saved, and the attention of every captain could almost undistractedly be paid to the conduct of his own particular ship."' P. 115.

It is with much pleasure that we have so frequently deviated from the office of critic to join in praises with the author. Criticism would be too rigidly limited if its remarks were confined to the merits of a work, without being allowed to extend to the merits of the subject itself. On the present occasion, it did not

appear to us inconsistent with our duty to embrace the opportunity of expressing our feelings and sentiments.

In the remaining part of Mr. Charnock's book we shall satisfy ourselves with giving little more than a summary notice of the contents. The whole forms one continued series of warlike exploits. It would be no exaggeration to say, that the laurels and trophies gained by Nelson, if they could be shared out and otherwise distributed, are sufficient to have established the military reputation of twenty commanders.

Of the attack on the French fleet at the Nile, in which the good seamanship and excellent management of the British admiral contributed even more than valour to obtain a complete victory, the author has collected different authentic accounts, by both English and French writers. Each fleet consisted of 13 sail of the line; 9 of the French were captured, 2 were burnt, and 2 made their escape.

Admiral Nelson judged it necessary to send information of this victory, and of the state of affairs in Egypt, to India. We insert the following extract from the admiral's letter to the governor of Bombay.

'Vanguard, Mouth of the Nile
August 9th, 1798.

'SIR,

'Although I hope the consuls, who are, or ought to be, resident in Egypt, have sent you an express of the situation of affairs here; yet, as I know Mr. Baldwin has some months left Alexandria, it is possible you may not be regularly informed. I shall, therefore, relate to you briefly that a French army of forty thousand men, in three hundred transports, with thirteen sail of the line, eleven frigates, bomb-vessels, gun-boats, &c. &c. arrived at Alexandria on the 1st of July. On the 7th they left it for Cairo, where they arrived on the 22d. During their march they had some actions with the Mamelukes, which the French call *great victories*. As I have Buonaparte's dispatches now before me, which I took yesterday, I speak positively. He says, "I am now going to send off to take Suez and Damietta." He does not speak favourably either of country or people; but there is such bombast in his letters, that it is difficult to get at the truth; but you may be sure he is only master of what his army covers.' P. 157.

The attack at Copenhagen may be reckoned the most difficult of all the achievements of admiral Nelson. Mr. Charnock has accompanied the accounts of this transaction with a plan of the Danish line of defence, and of the attack.

After the short peace, or rather the renewal of the war, in May 1803, lord Nelson was appointed to command in the Mediterranean. The French fleet at Toulon, in a constant complete state of equipment, as a tribute of acknowledgement to the merit of the British commander, quietly enjoyed the security of that port nearly two years.

'So mortified was his lordship at his compulsive state of inactivity, that in consequence of the corporation of London having voted him

thanks for the service he had rendered his country, by blockading the port of Toulon, and thereby preventing the enemy's fleet in that quarter from putting to sea, he returned the subjoined very characteristic answer.

'"Victory,
August 1, 1804.

'"MY LORD,

'"This day I am honoured with your lordship's letter, of April 9th, transmitting me the resolutions of the corporation of the city of London, thanking me, as commanding the fleet blockading Toulon. I do assure your lordship, that there is not that man breathing who sets a higher value upon the thanks of his fellow citizens of London than myself; but I should feel as much ashamed to receive them for a particular service marked in the resolution, if I felt that I did not come within that line of service, as I should feel hurt at having a great victory passed over without notice.

"I beg to inform your lordship, that the port of Toulon has never been blockaded by me; quite the reverse; every opportunity has been offered the enemy to put to sea, for it is there that we hope to realize the hopes and expectations of our country; and I trust that they will not be disappointed."' P. 365.

In the beginning of 1805 the French fleet left Toulon, but encountering bad weather they put back; whilst admiral Nelson, deceived by false reports, sought them again in Egypt. The French again put to sea, and in the beginning of April passed the Strait of Gibraltar, and, being joined by a Spanish force at Cadiz, proceeded for the West Indies. Their escape gave rise to a pursuit which stands singular and unequalled—a pursuit over a space equal to half the circumference of the globe, undertaken upon the spur of occasion, without previous notice, and by a force which very little exceeded one half of that of the enemy chased. And such was the admirable order preserved in his fleet, that no ship lost company in their pursuit, or suffered from ill health.

'To attack, even at the most unequal odds, an enemy supposed to have a great and particular object in view, is an act of gallantry most highly praise-worthy; and had his lordship, with his squadron of ten sail of the line only, fallen in with the combined force of France and Spain, amounting, as it did, to eighteen, either in the Mediterranean sea, the Straits of Gibraltar, or any where in the vicinity to the westward of them; had he engaged them, and without capturing a single ship, crippled so great a part as to have arrested their further progress, the act might have vied with any that occurs in the naval history of Britain; but on the present occasion, and on his present conduct, the mind feels itself compelled merely to contemplate the tribute of applause it wishes to pay, owing to the want of terms sufficiently expressive of its truly grateful feelings.' P. 372.

The author proceeds;

'No man, perhaps, who ever bore the character of an officer, ever before took on himself so heavy a responsibility; had he been deceived

in his information; had he been impeded in his voyage by any of those accidents to which navigation is subject; had he experienced any of those disasters which no prudence could foresee, nor any attention could prevent; what would have been the outcry, the clamour that would have been raised against him! He would have been stigmatized in the most opprobrious terms, for his folly, his frenzy, and his disobedience, in not continuing in a station where he was placed by the orders of those whom it was his duty implicitly to obey; all his former laurels would have been blasted by the envenomed tongue of malice, and he himself would have passed through the shattered remains of a painful life, with a constitution worn out in the service of his country, neglected and forgotten even by those who owed him the highest tribute.' P. 372.

These are sensible observations; and to argue from all analogy in similar cases their truth is demonstrable.

Admirable Nelson! who both lived and died for his country, and who, only for the chance of serving that country, did not hesitate to hazard his most glorious reputation.

The victory of Trafalgar has been so much the theme of public admiration, that we shall only observe that the mode of the attack was governed by the determination of the commander to prevent the enemy from deriving profit by being so near their own port. The general order delivered by lord Nelson to the captains of his fleet on October the 10th, a few days previous to the battle, demands particular notice. Mr. Charnock properly remarks:

'The same grand energy of mind, so strongly discernible in every act of his lordship's life, never shone forth with greater brilliancy than in the arrangements he made, and the orders he issued, preparatory to the great impending contest.' P. 392.

The order itself may be studied by naval men, as the best practical lecture upon Naval Tactics which has ever appeared.

To say that Nelson was a fortunate man would be unjust. His victories cost him much; as his wounds and mutilated body witnessed,—and his last victory cost this country the greatest military ornament which the world has produced in our time. Instead of being favoured by Fortune, it may be said, that he caught at her with so bold a hand and with so just an aim, that she could not elude his grasp. Where will be found another man with a mind so fruitful in plan, so decided in execution, so provident in arrangement, and so ardent for action? It is highly gratifying to observe, among the heroic qualities of this truly great man, the affectionate regard he bore towards his companions in arms, and the plain sincerity and warmth of expression with which he ever most readily acknowledged the support and assistance he had received from them.

The great precept which he left to sea commanders,—a precept invariably recommended by his own example,—must be understood in its general sense to signify, that, when an officer is left to the guidance of his own discretion, in circumstances of a doubtful nature, he will not incur blame if he determines on the side of courage, even should his judgment be erroneous. The maxim, in his own impressive words, "If signals cannot be seen or understood, no captain can do wrong if he places his ship alongside that of an enemy," will, we trust, be recorded in conspicuous characters on the monument of this great commander.

To return to our office of Reviewer: it remains for us to inform the reader, that Mr. Charnock has given, in the shape of notes, biographical anecdotes of many illustrious naval characters. Fronting the title page is a portrait of admiral lord Nelson, and the work is illustrated by plans of the battles off Cape St. Vincent;—off Aboukir;—off Copenhagen;—and off Cape Trafalgar;—view of the boat fight off Cadiz;—and a fac simile of lord Nelson's hand-writing.

An appendix contains the copies of letters written by him at various periods to his friend captain William Locker, late lieutenant-governor of Greenwich Hospital. These letters are unreserved communications, and are written with great spirit. Besides the opinions of the writer, which, on whatever concerns the navy are always estimable, we find in them many curious particulars on other subjects. We shall conclude our account with a few extracts.

The letter No. XI. is highly characteristic of the writer, and shows the attachment of seamen to such a commander.

'Salisbury Street, Strand,
July 12, 1783.

'When I look at the date of your letter I received at Portsmouth, I ought to be ashamed at not having written to you; but you always knew I was a careless fellow, although, be assured, my great esteem and respect for you can never be lessened. My time, ever since I arrived in town, has been taken up in attempting to get the wages due to my good fellows for various ships they have served in during the war. The disgust of the seamen to the navy is all owing to the infernal plan of turning them over from ship to ship, so that men cannot be attached to their officers, or their officers care twopence about them: my ship was paid off last week; and in such a manner as must flatter any officer; particularly in these turbulent times: the whole ship's company offered, if I could get a ship, to enter for her immediately: but I have no thoughts of going to sea, for I cannot afford to live on board ships in such a manner as is going on at present. Yesterday lord Hood carried me to St. James's; the king was exceedingly attentive; on Monday, or Tuesday, I am to be at Windsor, to take leave of prince William, previous to his embarkation for the continent.' App. p. 16.

Speaking of lord Hood, he says,

'The lord is a very good friend to me: he is certainly the best officer I ever saw; every thing from him is so clear, it is impossible to misunderstand him.' App. p. 47.

He was partial to the West Indies, though his constitution was ill adapted to the climate.

'Were I an admiral, there is no station I should like so much in a war, as Jamaica; I think I could give satisfaction by keeping the island free from privateers, which I know is the general complaint against our admirals.' App. p. 61.

His opinion of Spanish seamanship is well known.

'The peace of Spain is unfortunate, insomuch as it lets loose an additional force against the Austrian army here; otherwise, owing to the inactivity of the Spaniards, no benefit whatever arose to the common cause. As the conditions of the peace are not to be made public till September 23, we may suppose there are some of the articles by no means pleasant to the allied powers: I think myself, besides money, the Spaniards have consented to give ships. I know the French long since offered Spain peace for fourteen sail of the line fully stored, I take for granted not manned, as that would be the readiest way to lose them again.' App. p. 59.

The account we have given sufficiently shows that we esteem Mr. Charnock's work to be a very interesting publication. It is not confined merely to the biographical account of the excellent man we have lost; but it also contains a valuable body of information on naval subjects in general.

Art. II.—*Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London for the Year* 1805. *Part II.* 4to. 353 *Pages, with an Index, and six Plates. Price* 12*s.* Nicol.

[Concluded from p. 15.]

Art. 18.—*Some Account of the Two Mummies of the Egyptian Ibis, one of which was in a remarkably perfect State. By John Pearson, Esq. F.R.S.*

The antient Egyptians were not more remarkable for their attainments in science than for the extraordinary attention they paid to the bodies of their deceased relatives, preserving their remains by arts which are now either unknown or imperfectly recorded, and depositing them in subterranean structures which to this day excite the curiosity and wonder of the philosophic traveller. It is well known that human bodies were not exclu-

sively embalmed, but that several of their sacred animals were protected from decay, after death, by the process. Herodotus informs us that the cat, the ichneumon, the mus araneus terrestris, the ibis, and the hawk, were honoured with this mode of sepulture; but whether any other animals were preserved in the same manner does not appear. The mummies which are taken out of the catacombs of the birds at Saccara and at Thebes, are included in earthen jars closed with a cover of the same material. The contents have generally been found in a decayed state: but among the curiosities collected by the late major Hayes, in the years 1802, and 1803, were two small mummies in a very perfect state, which he took out of the catacombs at Thebes in Upper Egypt. Mr. Pearson has examined these. Both were contained in earthen jars, and were enveloped with cloth imbued with some bituminous or resinous substance. The contents of that first opened was found to be a bird in a very perfect state. The description and dimensions are given by Mr. Pearson with a handsome drawing. No particular marks of decay were observable, though it is probable that the greater part of three thousand years had elapsed since it was interred. From the appearance it is probable that the bird was immersed in the bituminous matter when in a liquid state; and it certainly was not boiled in the liquid, as Grew supposed, since the feathers are not at all corrugated, or materially changed.

Two species of the Ibis, the black and the white, have been noticed by Herodotus, Aristotle, and Pliny: but Plutarch has only mentioned the white Ibis. Mr. P. does not presume to determine whether the two birds he has described be specimens of the black or of the white. The anterior layer of feathers of the Ibis he last examined is of a dark colour; but the plumage beneath is white. A large engraving is given to illustrate the general description.

Art. 19.—*Observations on the singular Figure of the Planet Saturn. By William Herschel, LL.D. F.R.S.*

It is a remarkable circumstance, that Dr. Herschel and all other observers should have overlooked till now a singularity in the figure of Saturn, which though oblate is not regularly curved, but appears, if we may use the expression, to have four corners; the radius of curvature being the shortest, and its diameter longest, not at the equator, but at four points in 43° 20′ of latitude north and south of the Ring. In order to be sure that no optical illusion took place, the Doctor viewed Saturn with his forty feet reflector, as well as with his ten and twenty feet instruments, and repeatedly compared its figure with that of Jupiter, which is regularly spheroidal. The difference in the diameters of Saturn is considerable. The polar diameter answering to 32 parts, and the equatorial to 35, it was found that a diameter terminating in 43° 20′ north and south latitude measured 30 parts.

Art. 20.—*On the Magnetic Attraction of Oxides of Iron. By Timothy Lane, Esq. F.R.S.*

Mr. Lane found that the precipitate of iron form sulphate by an alkali is not magnetical, nor rendered so by solar or culinary heat, unless combustible matter be present. In this last case the least heat seems to be that of melted lead. He made several other experiments, which proved generally that mere oxides of iron are not magnetic. The magnetic oxides are not distinguishable by their colour, from those which are not so.

Art. 21.—*Additional Experiments and Remarks on an Artificial Substance, which possesses the principal characteristic Properties of Tannin. By Charles Hatchett, Esq. F.R.S.*

This paper is the sequel to Art. 12, in the same part of the Transactions. It consists of miscellaneous facts. A considerable difference between the artificial and the natural tannin, is that the former is produced by the action of nitric acid, whereas the varieties of the latter are destroyed by the same agent, or its destructibility by repeated distillations of that acid from it, is a work of considerable time and difficulty. The natural varieties differ in their power of resisting the nitric acid.

The artificial tanning matter exhibited the same habitudes with sulphuric and muriatic acids as the natural tannin does.

A variety of the artificial tanning substance was formed without converting the vegetable body into coal. Indigo subjected to the action of nitric acid most readily yeilds this substance; but the greater number of vegetable bodies do so likewise.

The tanning substance is developed in many of the vegetable bodies by mere heat; but the exact degree required for that purpose is not easy to determine.

The action of sulphuric acid on camphor and other bodies, developed the tanning matter. The camphor was dissolved in concentrated acid. Sulphureous gas was developed, which ceased in two days, and then heat was applied. After two more days cold water was added, and the whole subjected to gradual distillation. Water and an oil came over, and the residue after the abstraction of a little more super-added water, left a dark brown mass. Alcohol by long digestion made a deep coloured tincture, and after the spirit was distilled off upon the water bath, a resinous or gummy matter remained, which was quickly soluble in cold water, precipitated several of the metals, and completely precipitated isinglass. This dissolved matter possessed a less effectual tanning virtue, than the substance formed by the action of nitric acid; but it became equally powerful after adding a small quantity of nitric acid to the solution, evaporating to dryness, and dissolving again in water.

The remainder of Mr. Hatchett's paper is employed in a number of interesting observations on the three varieties of the

artificial tanning substance: namely, that produced by nitric acid upon carbonaceous matters; that which is formed by distilling the same acid from resin, indigo, and various other substances; and that which is yielded to alcohol by common resin, camphor, &c. after some time of previous digestion with sulphuric acid. For these we must refer to his memoir. In a note we observe that he considers benzoic acid as a product from the balsams and other matters, and not as an original ingredient or educt. He holds the same conclusion respecting the acid of amber. Concerning these, however, we may hope to hear further from this able chemist and philosopher.

Art. 22.—*On the Discovery of Palladium; with Observations on other Substances found with Platina. By William Hyde Wollaston, M.D. Sec. R.S.*

The principal subject of the present paper is palladium. The doctor has divided his paper into six sections. In the first he treats of the ore of iridium, which is mixed in grains scarcely distinguishable from the crude platina, but wholly insoluble in nitro-muriatic acid. They are harder under the file, not at all malleable, laminated in their fracture, and as heavy as 19¼. They contain no platina. The doctor's second section is employed on the minute red crystals observed among the platina grains. In specific gravity, hardness, habitude by fire, and figure of the crystals, they agree with the hyacinth, and are accordingly considered as such. In a third section our author treats of the precipitation of platina from its solution. After the first separation in the form of a triple salt by sal ammoniac, the remaining solution affords a metallic powder by the immersion of clean bars of iron. This was again dissolved in nitro-muriatic acid, and precipitated by sal ammoniac: the remaining fluid was again precipitated by iron; but this second metallic precipitate was not totally soluble in nitro-muriatic acid. The solution, when again precipitated by sal ammoniac, let fall iridium along with its platina.

The fourth section treats of the separation of palladium. The second metallic precipitate of the last mentioned experiments contained lead, iron, copper, and another metal precipitable by copper. This last was separated by agitating mercury in a nitrous solution of the last precipitate, and it acquired the consistence of an amalgam. When the mercury was driven off by heat, the remaining metal had the properties enumerated as distinctive of palladium. An easier method of separation was however adopted by the author, who found that muriatic acid diluted with an equal quantity of water, and containing one fifth of nitre, forms a solvent for palladium which possesses little power of acting on platina; so that, by digesting any quantity of the second metallic precipitate with this menstruum, a solution was had which by

evaporation gave crystals of a triple salt, consisting of palladium, combined with muriatic acid and potash. In his sixth section the doctor maintains that palladium is a simple metal, because there is no instance in chemistry of a distinctly crystallized salt containing more than two bases combined with an acid, and because its combination with metals may be decomposed without change, and its precipitate is reducible by mere heat.

In the same section of this paper we are informed of the easiest method of separating palladium. Prussiate of mercury added to the solution of crude platina throws down the prussiate of palladium, which is then decomposable by heat, leaving the metal in a pure state. The quantity does not exceed five tenths per cent. Of the platina made use of, and its product is not increased by using more mercury. Mercurial prussiate is the test of palladium. The phænomenon of its solution in nitrous acid, its conducting power, and rate of expansion by heat, occupy the remaining pages of this paper.

Art. 23.—*Experiments on a Mineral Substance formerly supposed to be Zeolite; with some Remarks on two Species of Uran-glimmer. By the Rev. William Gregor.*

The description and analysis in this paper, though constituting a valuable addition to the general mass of mineralogical facts, does not admit of abridgment.

Art. III.—*The Penance of Hugo; a Vision on the French Revolution, in the Manner of Dante; in four Cantos, written on the Occasion of the Death of Nicola Hugo de Basseville, Envoy from the French Republic at Rome, Jan.* 14, 1793. *Translated from the original Italian of Vincenzo Monti into English Verse, with two additional Cantos, by the Rev. Henry Boyd, A. M. Vicar of Drumgath, in Ireland, and Chaplain to the Right Hon. Lord Viscount Charleville.* 12*mo.* 180 *Pages. Price* 5*s.* Longman and Co.

This work is neatly printed on wove paper, and exceeds the promise of its title-page by the addition of a short original poem, in imitation of Gray's Descent of Odin, entitled The Witch of Lapland; written after the storm that scattered the fleet off Brest, January 1803. The volume is inscribed, in a metrical dedication, to Thomas James Matthias, esq. in return for 'many a valued social hour.'

The occasion of the original poem is thus stated in a short preface:—'Nicola Hugo de Basseville, a native of Abbeville in France, had been sent, some time in the year 1792, to effect a revolution at Rome. After many attempts, by private intrigues and harangues in public, he found the people so firmly attached

to their religion and government, that every proposal of innovation was rejected with disdain. This, instead of operating as a caution, only tended to irritate the mind of the republican missionary. Impelled by national arrogance, and the hopes of planting the tree of liberty on the banks of the Tiber, he continued his machinations; but on the 14th day of January 1793, as he was proceeding in his carriage on some design of this nature, he was met by the populace, who surrounded his coach, and, without any symptom of outrage, at first endeavoured to prevent his journey. Basseville, incensed at the interruption, fired a pistol among them, which raised their fury to such a degree, that they immediately dragged him out of his carriage, and dispatched him on the spot. The tumult immediately subsided; no other Frenchman received the least injury.'

Whatever subordinate merit the poem of Monti may possess, its general design discovers few vestiges of judgment or taste. Struck by the awful visions of the parent of Italian poetry, he seems to have conceived, that a general detail of horrible circumstances is itself alone sufficient to excite emotions 'sublimely terrible.' Monti is indeed far from the first who has adopted this error; but by very few indeed has it been so conspicuously exemplified. On the field which he has chosen materials lie profusely scattered; and with those which he has employed a powerful master might have reared a structure, august, impressive,—the memorial of his fame, and a beacon to posterity.

It is the province of history to describe the great outline that has fashioned the destiny of empires; but her view is too distant, her march is too precise and cold, to admit of those vivid pictures which we expect from a poet's hand: her motions are performed in a widely-extended orb, obedient to the immutable laws of time and truth. Rapid is the succession, strict is the order, of the events recorded by history; and, in contemplation of the scene she discloses, we resign our individual feelings for the abstract speculations of philanthropy: battles, conspiracies, and the perpetration of the most execrable atrocities that disgrace her page, awaken in us only a general feeling; we look forward to an ultimate *effect*, which, if it seem favourable to the happiness of mankind, dissipates our gloomy recollection of the crimes that produced it. But when the poet aims to finish some part of the outline which the historian hath sketched, we expect to *see* and to *feel* what before we were content generally to understand. No longer attentive to narration, we look for the embodied representation of things. Our personal feelings must be engaged; our passions alternately exercised; every leading circumstance must be placed before us, distinct, prominent, conspicuous by position and relieved by contrast. We remember the license of poetry, and expect to find it employed with judgment, taste, and all the magic passion of elevated genius.

The poem before us commences at the moment when the spirit

of Basseville is dismissed to the other world. It is immediately claimed by a dæmon; but, by an exertion of poetical mercy, a guardian angel rescues it, and denounces the mitigated sentence of penance and purgation 'till France atones her crimes.' By the appointed penance the shade of Hugo is doomed to wander over the earth, attended by the redeeming spirit, and to witness the events of the French revolution, which, with some apparent inconsistency (for no reason is assigned), excite in this lately active agent deep remorse.

We shall not inquire whether the assassination of a turbulent envoy be a subject of sufficient importance for the basis of a poem; it will suffice to remark, that by this contrivance the most impressive events of the revolution might have been selected and arranged without any inconvenient restriction as to time or place. The assumption of preternatural assistance gave room to develop concealed motives and hidden springs of action: throughout the whole piece the imagery might have been full and affecting; the succession of events rapid, and artfully contrasted; and a certain connection might also have been preserved, keeping up a degree of unity, and tending to some definite point. But those advantages do not belong to the poem before us. The dispersion of a French fleet by a storm, in which Notus performs in his usual character, gave a bad omen to our critical voyage. The blasphemous and sanguinary orgies of the Marseillois, the violation of the churches, and the plunder of the royal cemetery to supply means for further devastation, 'the loaded gibbet and the bloody *bust*,' are chronicled in succession; but, from an obscure mode of metaphorical representation, faint dreams of those events glide slowly before us, like the ill-drawn and dim figures of a magic lantern the focus of which is incorrectly set.

Towards the end of the first canto, the spirit of an executioner, pardoned by 'eternal Love,' joins the disembodied pair; but with what intent this third personage is introduced does not appear, unless it be to give length and languor to the tale of blood by relating the circumstances of his own death.

The second canto gives us a view of Paris on the day of the execution of the unfortunate monarch; and describes, allegorically personified, those passions which might be supposed to have agitated and afflicted the Parisians at that turbulent crisis. In vain we look for originality in the portraits of these ideal personages, though the poet employs twelve stanzas to range his muster-roll of dæmons before us. *Pale Sorrow* is singing her *doleful descant*; *Stern Necessity* still holds his *iron scourge*; *Famine* is a *dire anatomy, hide-bound, with hollow eyes*; *Rage* is *rampant*; and *Discord*, as usual, wears her *serpentine bandeau*.

> 'But now a visionary band was seen
> (Unmark'd by mortals), with infuriate mien—

Artificers of ill—The horrid van
The Druids led: the sweeping robes they wore
And monstrous masks were dipp'd in human gore,
Whose streams of old around their altars ran.'

This sanguine crew proceed to 'seize and strictly bind their royal prize;' at which atrocity,

'Hyperion, with his orb suffus'd with blood,
To turn or to proceed suspended stood!——!'

In the mean time the Deity weighs the crimes of France, and the scale is balanced by his paternal forbearance until an accusing angel announces an 'overcharge of sin,'—the sacrifice of the king. Then

'With sudden impulse fell the guilty scale;
The OTHER *mounted to th' Olympic hall.*'

The scene of execution is next disclosed. The spirits of Ankerström, Damiens, Ravaillac, and a fourth, who conceals his title, diabolically caparisoned, with halters round their necks and daggers in their hands, are the fatal ministers. The whole proceeding is circumstantially, but tamely, detailed. By a selection of incident, and a pathetic grandeur of description, the author might here have awakened the strongest emotions of indignant sympathy; but he has not: the four dæmons are indiscriminately employed, without any characteristic distinction either of sentiment or action. The steel is raised by a 'dark second:'—

'His consecrated locks another held,
And downward to the fatal block compell'd
The royal head: a fourth the fatal twine
Cut sheer, and down the forceful engine fell—
Earth shook, and ocean seem'd in rage to swell,
While heav'n in thunder gave the fatal sign.'

The four following stanzas inform us that 'people and kings alike were seiz'd with dread' at the rumour of this catastrophe—that 'the Gaul laugh'd loud to hear the general moan;' and his thirst of blood is compared to that of a *herd* of lions, who having devoured a bull, 'half fed, half *famish'd*, by the scant *supply*,' pursue the '*mother* and her tender *brood*' through *flood* and field!—Without stopping to discuss this bull, upon which the lions were famished, as well as fed; or on the *tender brood of calves*, which escaped with their mother; we shall proceed, and inflict no further penance on the reader by extending our remarks on this translation. In justice to Monti, however, we will pursue the subject of the remaining cantos; observing, that our abstract, by bringing the parts of the poem nearer toge-

ther, gives an appearance of conciseness and contrast which the original cannot boast. A tedious prolixity pervades the whole work; and though we pass from heaven to earth, from earth to heaven, it is not by the fine phrensy of the poet that our languid motions are directed. The second canto ends with the liberation of the spirit of the monarch, who is immediately surrounded by a band of martyrs, and accosted by the shade of Basseville.

The third canto commences with the address of Hugo to the new tenant of the invisible world: he upbraids his own folly in presuming to shake the papal empire, and pourtrays the lion of Judah as the invincible guardian of the 'Capitolian hill.' He relates the circumstances of his assassination, and the subsequent sentence; implores the monarch's pardon; and entreats his intercession for a remission of the penance; which is graciously promised.

The spirit of Louis then proceeds to the presence of the Deity, welcomed by the songs of cherubim; and the poem returns to the stage of the guillotine, where the spirits of Voltaire, Diderot, Rousseau, d'Alembert, and others '*of execrable name*,' are dancing with '*infernal glee and hideous grace*.'

The penitence of Hugo employs the first stanzas of the fourth canto. He beholds the spirit of Raynal among the damned; which, as the abbé was then living on earth, excites surprise: he is informed by the attendant angel that a '*Stygian tenant supplies the body with the spark of life*;' and is assured that the fate of Raynal is not peculiar, but that the forum and the bar are filled with those embodied dæmons.

A note acquaints us that this spiritual exchange is in imitation of Dante Inferno, c. 32.

The conversation of the spirits is now suddenly interrupted. The gates of heaven unfold, and four warrior angels appear (the translator announces but three, although his subsequent stanzas describe four); they visit the 'accursed city' (Paris), and the horde of dæmons exulting on the scaffold disperse in confusion and dismay. From a deserted temple two female beings advance; each bears two 'mighty mazers,' the embossments of which represent the escape of the royal family, and their subsequent arrest, the massacres of the 10th of August and of the 2d of September, and the parting interview of Louis with his family. Sorrow withheld the artist's hand,

> 'Else there had been display'd the ruffian band,
> The gory scaffold, and the *falling head!*'

The sacred pair first pay funereal obsequies to the body of the monarch; then, collecting his gore from the scaffold, they fill their vases, and present them to the four warrior angels, who sing a song of vengeance, at the conclusion of which they separate to the four quarters of the earth:—

'Then o'er the fields of fine aërial blue
Each from his goblet flung the gory dew,
Diffusive, like a crimson cloud afar
Shedding a sanguine light, that veil'd around
The stellar fires in bloody billows drown'd,
And all the planets look'd revenge and war!'

The effect of this influence is immediately felt by the British lion and Hanoverian horse, who prepare for vengeance, armed with all their heraldic terrors. With the warlike preparations of the first continental confederacy, and some prophetic annunciations of impending calamities, the poem concludes.

The task of poetical translation is replete with acknowledged difficulty. Conscious of this, Mr. Boyd, to give more ample scope to the plenitude of his genius, has assumed the latitude of a *free translation*. We wish any assumed liberty could have developed such poetical powers as might have authorised us to award him the meed of praise. The measure, perhaps in its nature incapable of exciting powerful impressions, is rendered insupportably tedious by a feeble, prosaic, and diffusive versification. The introduction of words new to poetry, and even to the English language, and the use of illegitimate rhymes, such as *death* coupled with *wrath*, *suffice* with *ties*, *confest* with *increase*, &c. &c. frequently occur.

Two additional cantos, composed by Mr. Boyd, prolong this versified calendar of crimes. On these, with the 'Imitation of the Descent of Odin,' we must decline all comment, since we are unable to discover in them any claims to approbation.

ART. IV.—*A complete Collection of Tables for Navigation and Nautical Astronomy, with simple, concise, and accurate Methods for all the Calculations useful at Sea; particularly for deducing the Longitude from Lunar Distances, and the Latitude from two Altitudes of the Sun and the Interval of Time between the Observations. By Joseph De Mendoza Rios, Esq. F. R. S. 4to. 730 Pages. Price 1l. 1s. in Sheets.* Faulder; Longman and Co. 1805.

MR. MENDOZA RIOS, the author of this elaborate work, has directed his studies for many years to the advancement of navigation and nautical astronomy. To do this effectually, he has endeavoured to improve the theory, and then constructed tables to facilitate the practice according to the best methods he could adopt upon those principles. A great part of Mr. M. R.'s investigations has been published in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society for 1797, in a paper which contains, with a great quantity of new matter, some very general formulæ, and a variety of inquiries respecting the principal problems of nautical

astronomy, which altogether compose a theoretical treatise upon that science. He afterwards gave a specimen, or abstract, of the tables he had constructed in the pursuit of his plan, in a 4to volume *, published in 1801; and, in the course of the year just expired, the complete collection has appeared, which is the subject of the present article.

Mr. M. R. has made a new application of the versed-sines, and extended their use in trigonometry; and as that improvement is of great utility in several of his methods, it will be proper to explain it before we proceed further.

The sines and tangents being the lines principally used in trigonometry, and those lines being comprehended between 0 and 90 degrees, the tables of these are complete in one quadrant, and they have accordingly been so given. The versed-sines have usually been placed by the side of them, within the same limits; and thus the tables of versed-sines, as well as of the sines, were concluded when these lines became equal to the radius. The versed-sines, however, continue to increase for all arcs, from 0 to 180 degrees, when it becomes equal to the diameter; and hence, by employing it to its whole extent, an advantage may be had which was never before obtained, namely, that of using and concluding the arcs at once, as they are, as far as the semi-circumference, and avoiding the ambiguity which remains by each sine being common to two arcs, which are supplements to each other. Induced by these considerations, Mr. M. R. has computed complete tables of the versed-sines, both natural and artificial, and rendered them capable of many applications, by combining them, with regard to the arcs according to the correlative references which are peculiar to their nature. The sine of the complement of an arc to 90 degrees is called the cosine of that arc; and that correlative name, invented by Gunter, has been found very useful in calculation. In the same manner were employed the denominations of *versed-sine* and *coversed-sine*; but Mr. M. R. finds two new correlatives, which may be useful, viz. the versed sine of the supplement of an arc, which he calls *suversed-sine*; and the versed-sine of the arc + 90°,

* *Tables for facilitating the Calculations of Nautical Astronomy, and particularly of the Latitude of a Ship at Sea, from two Altitudes of the Sun, and that of the Longitude, from the Distances of the Moon from the Sun or a Star; containing the natural Versed-Sines to every ten Seconds, and the Logarithmic Sines, Double-Sines, Versed-Sines, &c. to every Minute, from 0 to 180 Degrees; and several other Tables, useful in Astronomy and Navigation.* R. Faulder.

In those Tables, Mr. M. R. gave already a convenient method of correcting the lunar distances, by the addition of five numbers; but as this rule, though elegant and easy, is very inferior to the method given by the author in his great work, which is the object of our present consideration, we shall not take any further notice of it. Those who may be disposed to examine it more particularly will find an ample analysis of that rule in a memoir by Delambre, in the *Connoissance des Tems*, an. 12. in which that ingenious astronomer has compared it with Legendre's and his own last methods, and candidly explained the advantages of Mr. Mendoza Rios's process.

which he calls the *sucoversed-sine.* Thus, for an arc A, we shall have

Versed-sine	A = 1 − cosine A.	
Suversed-sine	A = 1 + cosine A =	versed-sine (180° − A).
Coversed-sine	A = 1 − sine A =	versed-sine (90° − A).
Sucoversed-sine	A = 1 + sine A =	versed-sine (90° + A).

We shall now proceed to take a short view of the important work under consideration.

In the contrivance of his methods, the author has particularly attended to avoid the inconvenience of complicating the rules with distinctions of cases. That sort of inconvenience, when it takes place, is indeed an essential imperfection, because it charges the memory with a precept which sometimes may not be plain, and always exposes the calculator to commit errors in its application. In practice, it may be reckoned worse than a considerable portion of mere computation. He appears also to have endeavoured to reduce as much as possible the calculations to simple additions, as being the easiest of all arithmetical operations. The methods and the tables for the principal problems are so contrived, that no proportional parts require to be computed; and when they are necessary, they are ready given, and may be taken at sight. This is a point of great importance when the labour of any calculation is to be estimated. Computers well know that many methods appear very easy, as exhibited in books, which are really long and tedious, on account of the trouble required to take out proportional parts in the use of the tables from whence the numbers are taken. No mistake of this kind can, however, take place in this work; for the computations are all given at full length, and the examples contain every figure which is used or required.

The first section comprehends *Tables to correct the observed Altitudes of the Sun, Moon, and Stars, and the observed Distances of the Moon to the Sun, or a Star;* among which we shall enumerate those only which are the most entitled to notice.

Table IV. contains the corrections (*subtractive*) of the apparent altitudes of the sun and stars; that is, the astronomical refractions, and the same refractions less the sun's parallax. It is contained in two pages, and does not require proportional parts. Table VI. gives the complements of the numbers of Table IV. to 60 minutes, under the name of complementary corrections: these corrections become additive, and are useful in avoiding a subtraction in correcting the lunar distances.

Table IX. contains the corrections (*additive*) of the moon's apparent altitudes; that is, the parallax less the refraction in altitude. The numbers are given to every two minutes of altitude and every minute of horizontal parallax; therefore no proportional parts are required for the former argument, and the pro-

portional parts for the other argument (always additive) are exhibited to every second.

Table X. contains certain auxiliary arguments, which are useful in reducing the lunar distances. These numbers, depending upon the same arguments as Table IX., are arranged in a similar manner, and both tables are intermixed, so that each two opposite pages exhibit the corresponding correction of the moon's altitude, and auxiliary argument, which may thus be taken at the same opening of the book.

Table XI. is alone a considerable work, comprehending 300 pages, closely printed. It contains all the numbers which are necessary for the calculation of the lunar distances, cleared of refraction and parallax. Nos. 1 and 3 are under a double argument; but, by the manner in which the table is contrived, no proportional parts are necessary but for the top argument. No. 3 depends on a single argument; and the sums of those three numbers which must be used for finding the corrected distances are also arranged in a similar manner. The proportional parts, for all the arguments which require them, are given to every second, and are constantly additive.

Before we proceed to the remaining part of the work, we shall give the reader a notion of the method which is given for clearing the apparent distances from the moon to the sun or a star of the effects of parallax and refraction. This problem, being of the first importance in nautical astronomy, has exercised the abilities of most modern mathematicians of note; and perhaps there is not one concerning which so many rules and inquiries have been proposed and published. It would exceed our limits to enter into the history of these rules, or a critical comparison between them: we shall only observe that, after so great a number of methods, still one was wanted, in which the requisite accuracy should be combined with the advantages of simplicity and that conciseness which are so indispensable to render it generally useful in practice. This desideratum is accomplished in the present work; and the statement of the manner of computation will be sufficient to satisfy our readers respecting the judgment which we do not hesitate to pronounce upon this point.

The apparent altitude of the sun or star, and that of the moon, are added together. Under that sum are placed the complementary correction of the sun or star's altitude (from Table VI.), the correction of the moon's altitude, and its proportional parts; and the whole, added together, gives a sum which is called that of the corrected altitudes. At the time of taking the corrections of the moon's altitude out of Table IX., the auxiliary argument is likewise taken, on the opposite page, out of Table X. This is the whole of the preliminary operations, which require only two openings of the book: the remaining operations are all done by means of Table XI. With the sum of apparent altitudes and the auxiliary argument, No. 1 is

found, and the proportional part to be placed under it: with the corrected sum of altitudes No. 2 is found, and the proportional part to be placed under it: with the apparent distance (omitting the seconds which must be reserved) and the auxiliary argument No. 3 is found, with its proportional part to be placed under it. Adding those numbers together, and looking with the sum into the table, the corrected distance is obtained, which, with the addition of the reserved seconds, gives the true distance required.

It is to be remarked, that, after taking No. 1, No. 2 is always found on turning one or two leaves; and that, if the book be left open at the place of No. 3, the corrected distance answering to the sum will be found in the same or the contiguous pages. Twice seeking into the table is therefore sufficient for this calculation; and no more than two openings of the book are necessary for the preceding preliminary operations. This brevity, added to the simplicity of the rule, renders the computation easy to be performed in so short a time as three minutes, according to the repeated trials of a skilful navigator; whereas the accurate direct methods that were known before, such as Borda's, and that of doctor Maskelyne (in the introduction to Taylor's Logarithms), would take fifteen or twenty minutes.

This method is founded on the principles given by the author in his paper, Philosophical Transactions, pages 90, 94, and 95, to which we must refer for the theory; but, in order that our mathematical friends, who may not have the Transactions at hand, may have some information respecting it, we will explain how each of the numbers used in the calculation is composed:—Let the apparent and true altitudes of the moon be a, A; the apparent and true altitudes of the sun or star h, H; the apparent distance d, and the true distance D. Let also the correction of the sun or star's apparent altitude be s, (consequently the complementary correction of Table VI. $1^\circ - s$,) and the correction of the moon's apparent altitude l, and the auxiliary argument of Table X., M, (this is such that $\frac{\text{cos. A cos. H,}}{\text{cos. } a \quad \text{cos. } h,} = 2 \text{ cos. M,}$) then the values of the sum and numbers will be expressed as follow:—

$$\text{(Sum) } 4 + \text{vers. sine D} = \begin{cases} \text{vers. sine } (h + a + \text{M}) + \text{vers. sine } ((h + a) \backsim \text{M}), & \text{(No. 1.)} \\ + \text{suvers. sine } (h + a + 1^\circ - s + l - 1^\circ) \text{ - - -} & \text{(No. 2.)} \\ + \text{vers. sine } (d + \text{M}) + \text{vers. sine } (d \backsim \text{M}) \text{ - - -} & \text{(No. 3.)} \end{cases}$$

We shall now proceed to notice what appears to be most remarkable in the remaining parts of the work.

The next section contains *Logarithmic Tables, and Tables to convert Parts of the Circle into Time, and vice-versâ*, which includes a very important table of logarithmic sines, cosines, secants, cosecants, versed, coversed, suversed, and sucoversed. The four last are the logarithms of half the versed-sines, coversed-sines, suversed-sines, and sucoversed-sines; and the author has preferred the former numbers to that of the latter, in

order to avoid the necessity of giving also the logarithms of the double-sines (as he had done in his former publication), or complicating the calculations with the application of the logarithm of 2. In most other respects, the use of what the author calls versed, coversed sines, is similar, and offers the same advantages as the versed-sine, coversed-sine, &c.

This table has two arguments; one in parts of the circle, another in time; which is very useful to employ it without being obliged to change the latter denomination into the former, as is the case with the usual logarithmic tables. The arguments are also carried to 180 degrees, or 12 hours, in order to procure the advantages which may be derived from the versed-sines, &c.; and the numbers are given to every 15 seconds of the circle, or one second of time; so that the table may be used in the intended calculations, without proportional parts.

On account of these advantages, the method given by the author to compute the apparent time from the altitude of the sun or a star is less operose than any of those hitherto proposed; and the same may be said of the rules for the calculation of the altitude and azimuth.

Mr. M. R. employs a particular notation for the sexagesimals of the arcs in time; and as this distinction deserves to be adopted, we shall explain it in the words of the author:—

'As the minutes and seconds of the circle differ so much from the minutes and seconds of time, I have thought proper to distinguish them by different marks, or signs, which will, I hope, produce perspicuity, and prevent mistakes. I have therefore adopted for the latter the initial letters of the words; an *m* will accordingly be found to mark the minutes of time, and an *s* to denote the seconds, &c., in the same manner as we use an *h* to mark the hours, leaving the signs ', ", &c., exclusively for the expressions which apply to the divisions of the circle.'

The following section contains *Tables for computing the Latitude by two Altitudes of the Sun observed at any Hours of the same Day, and by several Altitudes near Noon.*

The determination of the latitude by two altitudes of the sun out of the meridian is of very great importance in navigation, and may be the means of saving a ship in critical situations, when the weather does not permit the observation of the altitude at noon. The direct calculation, by spherical trigonometry, is too long to be introduced in practice; and in order to avoid that difficulty, recourse has been had to rules of false position. Of this kind, several have been proposed; but the only one used by navigators is Douwes's method, which, notwithstanding this preference, is still liable to considerable inconveniences. In this method, except when by chance the assumed latitude happens to be the true latitude, the calculation must be repeated till that identity takes place; for without such a proof the accuracy of the result is uncertain, particularly when the computed latitude

differs considerably from the supposed latitude. The method, besides, fails sometimes altogether; because, under certain circumstances, the computed latitude is wider from the truth than the one assumed; and then the repetition of the calculation does not produce the identity required. Mr. Brinkley has given an ingenious method for finding the correction, which is to be applied to the computed latitude, in order to have the true latitude; but the computation is so embarrassed with complicated distinctions of cases, that no use seems to have been made of it; and perhaps it can never be brought to the simplicity which is required in practice. With regard to this problem, navigators lie still under considerable disadvantages, which seem to be removed by the process of Mr. M. R., given in this work. It is a direct method, which affords a new instance of the useful application of the versed-sines, and in which the author has avoided all distinctions of cases, except one, which depends on the nature of the problem. For the whole computation by this method, the book is opened nine times: for the first approximation, or one single calculation, by Douwes's rule, the book must be opened eight times: but, as no proportional parts are necessary in the former, while they are indispensable in the tables for the latter, it is clear that Mr. M. R.'s process affords means for concluding the latitude at once in a manner which is easier than even one single computation or approximation according to the usual rule. To this it may be added, that the direct method is general in all circumstances, and does not require different precepts when the sun in its diurnal motion passes between the elevated pole and the horizon, as is the case with Douwes's rule, and Brinkley's correction. The great number of particular precepts, cautions, and attentions, which are requisite in both, and are saved by one direct calculation, may be easily seen by looking into the Requisite Tables, last edition, from p. 17 to p. 30.

The fourth section is occupied by *Tables for several Purposes*, and includes the tables which are useful in the several calculations of nautical astronomy which do not belong to the preceding parts of the work. Among these are two very extensive tables of semi-diurnal arcs, and of the amplitudes of the sun; and some others, which need not be here enumerated. These are followed by a *Geographical Table*, containing the latitudes and longitudes of places, and times of high water, which is a copy of Table XXIX. of the last edition of the Requisite Tables.

The next section contains *Tables chiefly useful in Common Navigation*; namely, the traverse tables and a table of meridional parts, with a subsidiary table, to adapt its use to the spheroid. Mr. M. R. has given the differences of latitude and departure, both for quarter-points and degrees, to 480 miles distance —a considerable enlargement of these very useful tables, which, as published till now, have not been carried beyond 300 miles.

The last section exhibits *Tables for the ready Use of the Nautical Almanack, containing proportional Parts of the Variations which take place in Periods of* 24 *Hours and* 12 *Hours, for Longitude, or any other Interval of Time.* This table is compact, and conveniently arranged to find with expedition and accuracy the proportional parts which must be applied to the elements of the sun and moon's motions, which are given in the Nautical Almanack for noon, or for noon and midnight, in order to have the elements for any intermediate time.

To the tables is annexed the necessary explanation of each particular table, which is followed by a section with problems and examples. These contain the rules for the solution of the principal problems of nautical astronomy, according to the author's methods, but without entering into the theory upon which they are founded, and giving only the precepts and illustrations which are sufficient to guide the practice of navigators in similar calculations. As we have already given some account of the methods relative to the most important problems, while noticing the tables which relate to them, we shall add nothing more upon these particulars. The collection embraces every thing which is necessary to facilitate the computations of navigation and nautical astronomy; and is certainly so complete, that navigators who possess this book are dispensed from having recourse to any other tables. The methods themselves are, besides, so decidedly superior to those hitherto published, and the prodigious industry of the author has been exerted in producing such extensive and useful tables, that they cannot fail of being generally adopted. His exertions in so laborious a task could have no other stimulus than a love of science, and an earnest desire to promote the welfare of society. He has the eminent merit of having improved and promoted the practice of celestial observations at sea; and every part of the commercial world must consider him as its benefactor.

If the author had been content to have bestowed his assiduity for the benefit of the maritime world, and had looked, not for profit, but for mere remuneration in the printing and publishing of this great and very expensive work, he must either have charged a very high price and limited its utility, or he must have consented to draw upon his private fortune, to ensure the general utility of these tables, by bringing them within the reach of navigators in general. But the public boards of this kingdom have shown their patriotism and liberality in the performance of an evident duty on this occasion. The commissioners of longitude have granted a sum of money; the court of directors of the East India company have granted another sum; and Mr. Mendoza Rios has sacrificed all views of profit.—By these arrangements, a quarto work, containing 670 pages, each containing on an average four thousand figures, together with fifty pages of mathematical letter press, has been computed, printed in quarto, superintended, and revised, and is sold to the consumer, for one guinea!

ART. V.—*Statistique Elémentaire de la France, contenant les Principes de cette Science, et leur Application à l'Analyse de la Richesse, des Forces, et de la Puissance de l'Empire Français. Par M. Jacques Peuchet, &c.*—*or, The Elementary Statistics of France, containing the Principles of that Science, and their Application to the Analysis of the Riches, the Force, and the Power of the French Empire. By M. Jacques Peuchet, &c.* 8vo. 630 *Pages, comprehending the Preface, Table of Contents, and Index. Price* 10*s.* Paris, Printed for Gilbert and Co. 1805. Sold in London by Dulau and Co.

COLLECTIONS of facts relating to the state of society, in any particular nation, constitute the elementary materials upon which the combinations of diplomatists, the regulations of legislators, and the general doctrines of political œconomists, ought to be founded. Abstract reasoners on these objects resemble the natural philosophers among the antients, who amused themselves with general reasoning when they ought to have had recourse to particular experiments. Too much of this practice still continues in every department of the theory and practice of politics. Able statesmen and cautious politicians will imitate the modern cultivators of natural philosophy: instead of indulging in wild speculations, they will see the necessity of constantly referring to that actual state of things which constitutes the experimental part of social knowledge.

The subdivisions of knowledge are many. When we take a view of any political state, we may consider its natural peculiarities; those which appertain to its government or moral conduct; its degree of knowledge, industry, and capital; its manners, prejudices, and the personal powers of its inhabitants.—In attending to these and numerous other objects of research, either separately or in combination, useful treatises might be composed, and directed to different views and purposes; though the study and condition of man is not yet so far advanced as to afford any very definite rules for making the needful selection. Modern writers, however, have treated with considerable distinctness on political justice, or the laws by which men ought to be governed; on political œconomy, or the practices by which the national wealth is produced and increased; and very lately, the results of the national prosperity, as exhibited under the different articles of produce, manufactures, commerce, revenues, disposable forces, and the like, have been arranged, noted, and displayed, without any regard to science or theory, under the denomination of statistics, or statistical knowledge. This division, for which we are obliged to the Germans, promises to be of much utility. The treatise before us is an elementary work, in which the author has endeavoured in the form of narrative, in

ten chapters, to give a correct account of the present state of France, as to its means. We shall again return to its contents, after some discussion of the author's preliminary matter.

In the preface, some of the advantages of this study are detailed, and a concise account is given of the inquiries which have from time to time, during the last century, been set on foot by the French government, as well as those which are now actually in progress. The author seems to have an aversion to the exposure of results in the form of tables, which, he says, are neither read nor understood. But though we hold the contrary opinion, and are convinced that well digested tables possess the advantage of showing a number of comparative relations between numerical quantities contained in them, which cannot without labour and difficulty be collected from a current narrative,—yet we willingly admit, that the author has broken his work into chapters, sections, and paragraphs, in such a manner that the several objects are found with as much facility as this method could allow.

A discourse consisting of about 36 pages, on the study of statistics, is prefixed to this treatise.

The establishment of political combinations must have been originally made in order to repress, by the strong arm of public association, those effects of violence and injustice which, from numerous causes, are perpetually generated among individuals. By this expedient, so natural to the reasoning creature—man, his first state, which has so often been called the state of nature, was transferred from persons to the aggregates, or nations. Between these the efforts of physical attack and defence still continue to be the last resource for redress. The computation of this force, from an attention to all the elements which compose it, constitutes the business of statistics. Our author takes a rapid view of the crude statistics of the antients, as it appears in the writings and the orations of those times. From these he descends to the moderns. He mentions the memoirs of Sully with high approbation, and those particular memoirs which the intendants of the provinces drew up by order of Louis XIV., of which Boulainvilliers published a good abridgment in 1730. He censures the œconomists, as good men, but zealous and dogmatical in support of principles too general to admit of unqualified practical application. Political œconomy, diplomacy, and politics, generally taken, are correctly distinguished from each other and from statistics, which he also considers as being different from political arithmetic. Statistics establishes its facts from inquiry and research; political arithmetic computes them from certain known or supposed relations. Thus, for example, if the quantity of grain consumed in a country be known, and the average consumption of each inhabitant be either assumed or ascertained, the number of inhabitants in a country will be

deduced by the computation of *political arithmetic:* But *statistics* would show by actual enumeration what the population was.

It must be admitted, however, that few statistical reports could be made out, if the assistance of political arithmetic were not to be employed. This science, first extensively practised by our *sir William Petty, Child, Davenant, Young,* and lately in the excellent work of *Chalmers,* is obviously of the greatest utility and advantage. But it is no less certain that the most extravagant and false results have been obtained by this imposing method, in the hands even of men whose ability and sincerity could admit of no doubt. A few fundamental suppositions, with others built upon them, and others upon those, soon lead the ingenuity of conjecture into conclusions which may sometimes dazzle, but do not often enlighten.

The ministerial labours of Necker, while he kept close to his facts, have tended greatly to the public instruction; but in various other instances, such, for example, as his calculation of the quantity of metallic money in France, he appears to have taken the form without the substance, as many others have done before him.

The present French government, though disordered and confused, from the necessity of deciding and acting with regard to many important objects at once, has nevertheless, in every stage of its progress, shown a disposition to the advancement of human knowledge. Several ministerial orders have been directed to the prefects of the departments, to collect the statistical facts of the districts under their government; but as it is not to be supposed that these orders could give talent and industry to the persons who received them, it is admitted that the actual progress resulting from these instructions has not been of any great magnitude.

Mr. P. speaks rather at length on the manner of writing, or teaching statistics. He very properly condemns the blending of this object with geography, history, political regulations, and other matters foreign to an orderly arrangement of results. We cannot, indeed, speak of a kingdom or place without first attending to its locality; and as far as this necessity operates, the geography of places will influence the order of a statistical treatise. Beyond this the objects themselves appear to prescribe the order. In this respect, perhaps, there may be various arrangements equally perfect, and none of them free from defect. An arrangement too geographical, too attentive to the subdivisions of a state, will often separate things which would mutually illustrate each other if placed together; and on the other hand, when the divisions are so made as to include things of the same nature under each, it will require some assiduity in the reader to collect all that particularly relates to any single district or place. To obviate these difficulties, it becomes the duty of the writer

to supply a very perfect and extensive index. The index to the work before us is ample, but not sufficiently so.

The authors who have treated of the statistics of France are enumerated; and their characters given which renders his introductory discourse interesting and valuable. If the number had been smaller, we should have given an abstract of this part; but as it is, we must limit ourselves to general commendation. The work itself is divided into ten chapters, as we have before remarked. The first, which is short, treats of the extent of the French territory. The second indicates its division as it formerly existed, and as at present established. The third treats of the division of the French territory into 108 departments; but the author has judged it proper, first to attend to the physical division of this empire, its mountains, rivers, shores, and coasts, and the nature of its several soils. He then proceeds to a statistic analysis of the departments; by dividing France into regions, and classing a certain number of departments in each. Of these regions the author has formed eleven; and after treating of each as to its products, manufactures, commerce, population, extent in square leagues, woods, and forests, &c., he makes a statistical recapitulation of the extent, population, and direct contributions of France, at the beginning of the year 12.

The fourth chapter of this Treatise is occupied with the political, administrative, judiciary, and religious organization of the departments, in five sections. The fifth chapter relates to the population of France, under various heads: number of inhabitants; proportion of that number to the territory;—of births to the population;—of natural and legitimate children;—of marriages;—of deaths;—of the sexes;—of the several ages at the same time, living;—and of the military levies. In this section we find an extract from the report of *Lacuée* to the legislative corps, stating the population of every one of the departments, upon which the government ascertained the contingent of the maritime levy for the year 14. From this official document, we find that the whole population is 34,917,415, exclusive of the isle of Elba and Piedmont, which, from the tenth section, we find would raise the total very nearly to 35 millions. The maritime population amounts to 399,090 persons inscribed, and out of these the contingent levy is 30,000 men. The next section of this chapter discusses the means employed for encouraging population in France. These consist in an encouragement to the fathers of several children; the establishment of two thousand hospitals, without reckoning those for the troops and seamen; and the reception of foundlings, of which the number for all France, except Piedmont and the left bank of the Rhine, amounted to 62,000, in the year 9. The present annual number for Paris is 4,500, instead of 6,600, which was the number before the revolution; but at that time many were sent up from the provinces. The enlightened politician and friend to public

morals and prosperity will observe much of error in these and most other attempts on the part of governments to influence population, by any other means than that of rendering subsistence easily procurable by the efforts of each inhabitant. In particular he will reprobate those acts of the state which are directed to the reception and support of deserted infant children. The annual births of Paris are somewhat less than 19,000, and of these very nearly one-fourth are sent to be reared by the public. If we suppose one-fourth of the population of Paris to consist of families having some steady means of subsistence, (that is to say, including those whose situation is not lower than that of small shopkeepers,) and admit that none of these would abandon their children, we shall be authorised to infer, that one child in three of all the other births is relinquished to a superintendance which in the nature of things is wasteful, and destructive to the wretched creature itself; encourages libertinism, and deprives the parents of all that virtuous and affectionate stimulus which the care of our offspring produces, and which is so immediately productive to the stock of public morals and of public produce. In the comparatively few instances where the death of the infant does not terminate the abortive and ill-judged attempt, he will be reared with none of those early impressions of parental tenderness, which form the first and most decided elements of our virtuous habits.

In his sixth chapter, the author treats of the territorial productions of France, under a considerable number of sections: such as the culture of the lands; estimate value of its produce; extent of the public woods and forests; wines; oil; grain; mineral productions; fisheries; general consumption; and particularly that of Paris. Under these details, we find a number of useful numerical computations and documents, which are of value, not only as they relate to France, but as the general means for establishing scientific reasoning on these subjects. Much of these operations will be found, however, to consist in the estimates of political arithmetic, instead of being pure statistical results. The annual consumption is deduced in pounds (livres) weight of the different articles; and these, represented by a money price, for 1789, give, according to Lavoisier, for each inhabitant of Paris, the average of 516 livres per annum, including 100 livres for rent. This sum amounts to about fourteen pence of our money per day, and is much higher than the rate for the whole territory, —not only because many of the inhabitants of a capital are rich, but because the lower orders live better in the metropolis than elsewhere. In this subject, as well as in every other part of the work, we find little reason to approve the author's method of writing in the form of discourses instead of giving tables, in which his general conclusions might have been seen by a glance of the eye.

The products of industry or manufactures occupy the seventh chapter. As the subjects of France pay individually a tax for a

patent or licence, to exercise their respective arts or handyworks, it seems more easy to make out a statement of this part of national revenue in France than in the British dominions. But this part of the work is loosely and indistinctly made up. The cottons, paper, soap, sugar, starch, coffee, tobacco, and other articles, which are subject to tax, are estimated from the produce of the several respective imposts. In the present unnatural state of France, it would be of little utility to offer any extract from this chapter to our readers.

In the eighth chapter, the commerce of the French empire is discussed. An enumeration of the various articles; their place of produce or import; the direction and facilities of transport by roads and navigations; statistic researches on the quantity of metallic money in France, which he estimates at 1,200,000,000 livres in silver, and 650,000,000 in gold, for old France; and, for the whole of France, previous to the war which has just been concluded, the coin in livres is estimated at 1,550,000,000 in silver, and 1,000,000,000 in gold. We have already remarked that very little confidence is due to the reasoning upon which these inductions of Necker and others have been made. From the same authority he proceeds to deduce the quantity of the precious metals circulating in Europe. We are confident that all these estimates are taken too high, and every actual operation upon the coinage, as well as that which was made upon our own gold coin, in 1777, has confirmed this opinion. The moneys actually coined are applied not only to supply the circulation, but likewise the consumption of gold and silver which is made from coin in the arts, more especially when from bullion remittances, urged by the course of exchange, the respective coins of different states become removed from the places of their representative values. And it is certainly impossible to form any estimate of the metallic money necessary to carry on the commercial and manufacturing operations of any state, so long as the continually fluctuating amount of credits, by accounts current, for goods transmitted both ways, and by private acceptances, differing as to their run, according to the fluctuations of capital, the nature of the articles, the customary proceedings of trade, and the private characters of individuals. All these and many more operations tend to diminish the necessary quantity of metallic tickets, called money; and that state which by its riches, good government, and the habitual integrity of its commercial members, can command the most of these, will require the smallest proportion of its treasures to be applied to this purpose.—Particular sections are appropriated to the public bank of Paris; foreign commerce; exchanges, and the administration of commerce. On these, which in the present state of Europe we may without hesitation consider as of no immediate importance, we shall forbear to make any remark or abstract. The ninth chapter is occupied with the revenues of the state. Those before the revolution are given from

Necker; and the present revenues are treated in five sections, explaining the nature and amount of the direct and indirect taxes, the temporary or extraordinary revenues, expenses of the state, budget of the year 13, and the administration of the finances. By the budget, which no doubt is to be considered merely as a budget, we find the public debt stated at 49,351,911 francs perpetual, and 19,788,550 life annuities: the total of which constitutes an annual outgoing of 2,880,852*l.* sterling. The civil list amounts to 27,000,000 francs, or 1,125,000*l.* sterling. The expenses of the courts of justice, 21,200,000 francs. Foreign department, 861,000 francs. Home department, ordinary service, 16,500,000 francs; and extraordinary, 13,000,000 francs. Finance, ordinary, 23,019,800 francs; and 20,330,000 francs for specific objects. Treasury, 8,000,000 francs. War department, 166,500,000 francs for the armies, and 105,000 francs for the administration. Marine, 140,000,000 francs. Public service of the church, including 22,000,000 francs (pensions to ecclesiastics), 35,000,000. General police, 700,000 francs. Expense or loss in converting bills and government paper into cash, 11,000,000: and, lastly, a reserved sum of 20,765,339 francs. These altogether amount to 684,000,000 francs, or 28,500,000*l.* sterling. To answer these disbursements, we find a statement of the direct contributions and additional hundredths, 311,551,478 francs, and the indirect contributions, 288,448,522 francs, which sums together make 600,000,000 francs. And a number of items of accidental revenue and variable arrears are added, to the amount of 84,000,000 francs, which altogether make up a sum equal to the estimated expense above stated.

The tenth and concluding chapter is employed on the forces of the state. The peace-establishment, before the revolution, is given from Necker; and the military of the empire, in the year 13, is in the next place more fully detailed in men and expenses. The author gives an historical sketch of, the history, instead of a statistical account, of the French marine; which we are inclined to think he might feel to be necessary at the present moment, when the detail of former times admits much more scope for the writer than its present deplorable state. He has not found it pleasant or advisable to carry his statement lower than the middle of 1791.

This book which is closely printed in a great number of pages, contains an ample fund of statistical knowledge, arranged in as good an order as the subject itself is perhaps capable of. He has taken the best printed authorities, and in some instances has had recourse to better documents. For the most part his sources of information are distinctly mentioned; and upon the whole, we consider this book as a good manual to be perused and commented upon by the students of political science, as well as to be consulted by those who are more intimately acquainted with its objects.

ART. VI.—*Memoirs of Richard Cumberland, written by Himself; containing an Account of his Life and Writings, interspersed with Anecdotes and Characters of several of the most distinguished Persons of his Time with whom he has had Intercourse and Connection. 4to, large Paper. 533 Pages, with four Portraits. Price 2l. 2s. Boards.* Lackington and Co. 1805.

[Concluded from page 22.]

WE resume the narrative of our entertaining and intelligent author; who for a considerable number of pages appears to be occupied fully with the reminiscence of his contemporary friends and acquaintance, who possessed much celebrity in their day, but over most of whom the silent tomb has long ago closed. The descriptions and anecdotes given by Mr. Cumberland possess strength of observation, and that tone of reality which arises from personal intimacy; but his markings of distinct and appropriate character are not particularly impressive. We are indeed inclined to doubt whether those completely arranged pictures, in which an author eloquently sums up the character of his hero in a few well rounded sentences, somewhat resembling a mathematical demonstration, and terminating almost in a Q. E. D., are much oftener the brilliant products of imagination than faithful transcripts of nature and of truth. It was after the happy reception of The West Indian that the friends and followers of the muses resorted to Mr. Cumberland's house. Of these, the first which, in the order of pages, comes under our notice is Garrick; a sovereign and a despotic one, as managers are wont to be, and consequently having for his enemies many of that class who when offended are not slow to express their anger—*Genus irritabile vatum.* But this man was also amiable, and is spoken of with high affection and praise by Mr. Cumberland. To his great and impressive talents as an actor, which have never since been equalled, we readily join our suffrage to that of the writer.

'Ah! I would wish the world to believe, that they take but a very short and impartial estimate of that departed character, who only appreciate him as the best actor in the world: he was more and better than that excellence alone could make him by a thousand estimable qualities; and much as I enjoyed his company, I have been more gratified by the emanations of his heart than by the sallies of his fancy and imagination. Nature had done so much for him, that he could not help being an actor; she gave him a frame of so manageable a proportion, and from its flexibility so perfectly under command, that by its aptitude and elasticity he could draw it out to fit any sizes of character, that tragedy could offer to him, and contract it to any scale of ridiculous diminution, that his Abel Drugger, Scrub or Fribble could require of him to sink it to. His eye in the mean time was so penetrating, so speaking; his brow so moveable; and all his features so plastic, and so accommodating; that wherever his mind impelled them

they would go; and before his tongue could give the text, his countenance would express the spirit and the passion of the part he was encharged with.' P. 245.

'The brilliant vivacity of Garrick was subject to be clouded; little flying stories had too much of his attention, and more of his credit, than they should have had; and certainly there were too many babblers who had access to his ear. There was some precaution necessary as to the company you associated with him at your table: Fitzherbert understood that in general admirably well, yet he told me of a certain day, when Garrick, who had perhaps been put a little out of his way, and was missing from the company, was found in the back yard acting a turkey-cock to a black boy, who was capering for joy and continually crying out—"Massa Garrick do so make me laugh: I shall die with laughing."—The story I have no doubt is true; but I rather think it indicates the very contrary from a ruffled temper, and marks good-humour in its strongest light. To give amusement to children, and to take pleasure in the act, is such a symptom of suavity, as can never be mistaken.' P. 249.

Soame Jenyns is thus introduced:

'A disagreement about a name or a date will mar the best story that was ever put together. Sir Joshua Reynolds luckily could not hear an interrupter of this sort; Johnson would not hear, or, if he heard him, would not heed him; Soame Jenyns heard him, heeded him, set him right, and took up his tale, where he had left it, without any diminution of its humour, adding only a few more twists to his snuff-box, a few more taps upon the lid of it, with a preparatory grunt or two, the invariable forerunners of the amenity that was at the heels of them. He was the man, who bore his part in all societies with the most even temper and undisturbed hilarity of all the good companions whom I ever knew. He came into your house at the very moment you had put upon your card; he dressed himself to do your party honour in all the colours of the jay; his lace indeed had long since lost its lustre, but his coat had faithfully retained its cut since the days when gentlemen wore embroidered figured velvets with short sleeves, boot cuffs, and buckram skirts: as nature had cast him in the exact mould of an ill-made pair of stiff stays, he followed her so close in the fashion of his coat, that it was doubted if he did not wear them: because he had a protuberant wen just under his pole, he wore a wig that did not cover above half his head. His eyes were protruded like the eyes of the lobster, who wears them at the end of his feelers, and yet there was room between one of these and his nose for another wen that added nothing to his beauty; yet I heard this good man very innocently remark, when Gibbon published his History, that he wondered any body so ugly could write a book.

'Such was the exterior of a man who was the charm of the circle, and gave zest to every company he came into; his pleasantry was of a sort peculiar to himself; it harmonized with every thing; it was like the bread to our dinner; you did not perhaps make it the whole, or principal part, of your meal, but it was an admirable and wholesome auxiliary to your other viands. Soame Jenyns told you no long stories, engrossed not much of your attention, and was not angry with those that did; his thoughts were original, and were apt to have

a very whimsical affinity to the paradox in them: he wrote verses upon dancing, and prose upon the origin of evil, yet he was a very indifferent metaphysician and a worse dancer; ill-nature and personality, with the single exception of his lines upon Johnson, I never heard fall from his lips; those lines I have forgotten, though I believe I was the first person to whom he recited them; they were very bad, but he had been told that Johnson ridiculed his metaphysics, and some of us had just then been making extemporary epitaphs upon each other: though his wit was harmless, yet the general cast of it was ironical; there was a terseness in his repartees, that had a play of words as well as of thought; as when speaking of the difference between laying out money upon land, or purchasing into the funds, he said, "One was principal without interest, and the other interest without principal." Certain it is he had a brevity of expression that never hung upon the ear, and you felt the point in the very moment that he made the push. It was rather to be lamented that his lady Mrs. Jenyns had so great a respect for his good sayings, and so imperfect a recollection of them; for though she always prefaced her recitals of them with—*as Mr. Jenyns says*—it was not always what Mr. Jenyns said, and never, I am apt to think, *as* Mr. Jenyns said; but she was an excellent old lady, and twirled her fan with as much mechanical address as her ingenious husband twirled his snuff-box.' P. 247.

Goldsmith and Johnson appear next before us, and the works of each form the subject of criticism and general remark. From these we shall make no extract, partly because their works have been so multifariously criticised, and partly because we think the reader will find more originality in the anecdotes with which Mr. Cumberland's book abounds. The assemblage of the wits at the theatre professedly to support Goldsmith's comedy of She Stoops to Conquer, on the first night of its appearance, is amusing.

'We were not over-sanguine of success, but perfectly determined to struggle hard for our author; we accordingly assembled our strength at the Shakespear Tavern in a considerable body for an early dinner, where Samuel Johnson took the chair at the head of a long table, and was the life and soul of the corps: the poet took post silently by his side with the Burkes, sir Joshua Reynolds, Fitzherbert, Caleb Whitefoord and a phalanx of North-British pre-determined applauders, under the banner of major Mills, all good men and true. Our illustrious president was in inimitable glee, and poor Goldsmith that day took all his raillery as patiently and complacently as my friend Boswell would have done any day, or every day of his life. In the mean time we did not forget our duty; and though we had a better comedy going, in which Johnson was chief actor, we betook ourselves in good time to our separate and allotted posts, and waited the awful drawing up of the curtain. As our stations were pre-concerted, so were our signals for plaudits arranged and determined upon in a manner that gave every one his cue where to look for them, and how to follow them up.

'We had amongst us a very worthy and efficient member, long since lost to his friends and the world at large, Adam Drummond, of

amiable memory, who was gifted by nature with the most sonorous, and at the same time the most contagious, laugh that ever echoed from the human lungs. The neighing of the horse of the son of Hystaspes was a whisper to it; the whole thunder of the theatre could not drown it. This kind and ingenuous friend fairly fore-warned us that he knew no more when to give his fire, than the cannon did that was planted on a battery. He desired therefore to have a flapper at his elbow, and I had the honour to be deputed to that office. I planted him in an upper box, pretty nearly over the stage, in full view of the pit and galleries, and perfectly well situated to give the echo all its play through the hollows and recesses of the theatre. The success of our manœuvres was complete. All eyes were upon Johnson, who sate in a front row of a side box, and when he laughed every body thought themselves warranted to roar. In the mean time my friend followed signals with a rattle so irresistibly comic, that, when he had repeated it several times, the attention of the spectators was so engrossed by his person and performances, that the progress of the play seemed likely to become a secondary object, and I found it prudent to insinuate to him that he might halt his music without any prejudice to the author: but alas, it was now too late to rein him in; he had laughed upon my signal where he found no joke, and now unluckily he fancied that he found a joke in almost every thing that was said; so that nothing in nature could be more mal-a-propos than some of his bursts every now and then were. These were dangerous moments, for the pit began to take umbrage; but we carried our play through, and triumphed not only over Colman's judgement, but our own.' P. 269.

The history of Goldsmith's last poem called *Retaliation*, and the death of that remarkable man, are also related. Mr. Cumberland thinks The Vicar of Wakefield was sold to Dodsley for ten pounds. We remember to have heard it asserted in P. N. Row, almost thirty years ago, that Goldsmith had one hundred pounds for that novel; but great as its value is for simplicity, truth, native character, and a knowledge of all the ties of social life, we do not think it likely to have produced the greater sum at that period, and are unwilling to think that the less sum was all that was given by the Dodsleys, both of whom were entitled to rank higher than mere booksellers.

The production and appearance of The Choleric Man and afterwards of Timon of Athens, as altered from Shakespeare, are mentioned with comments and the relative circumstances; and these were succeeded by The Trip to Newmarket, and The Battle of Hastings. Dates, as we have elsewhere remarked, are universally wanting. About this last period the earl of Halifax died. By the patronage of lord George Germain he became secretary to the Board of Trade. Short accounts of the author's other works and writings are given; among which was a memorial of services and petition for employ on the part of sir George Brydges Rodney, to whom he ascribes that transfer of the military manœuvre of

land forces to the ships of a fleet, which has, with some variation, been since attended with successes so honourable to our navy. Respecting this great man and the manœuvre in question our author thus speaks:

'It happened to me to be present, and sitting next to admiral Rodney at table, when the thought seemed first to occur to him of breaking the French line by passing through it in the heat of the action. It was at lord George Germain's house at Stoneland after dinner, when having asked a number of questions about the manœuvring of columns, and the effect of charging with them on a line of infantry, he proceeded to arrange a parcel of cherry-stones, which he had collected from the table; and forming them as two fleets drawn up in line and opposed to each other, he at once arrested our attention, which had not been very generally engaged by his preparatory enquiries, by declaring he was determined so to pierce the enemy's line of battle, (arranging his manœuvre at the same time on the table) if ever it was his fortune to bring them into action. I dare say this passed with some as mere rhapsody, and all seemed to regard it as a very perilous and doubtful experiment. But landsmen's doubts and difficulties made no impression on the admiral, who having seized the idea held it fast, and in his eager animated way went on manœuvring his cherry stones, and throwing his enemy's representatives into such utter confusion, that already possessed of that victory in imagination, which in reality he lived to gain, he concluded his process by swearing he would lay the French admiral's flag at his sovereign's feet; a promise which he actually pledged to his majesty in his closet, and faithfully and gloriously performed.

'He was a singular and extraordinary man; there were some prominent and striking eccentricities about him, which on a first acquaintance might dismiss a cursory observer with inadequate and false impressions of his real character; for he would very commonly indulge himself in a loose and heedless style of talking, which for a time might intercept and screen from observation the sound good sense that he possessed, and the strength and dignity of mind that were natural to him. Neither ought it to be forgotten that the sea was his element, and it was there, and not on land, that the standard ought to be planted by which his merits should be measured. We are apt to set that man down as vain-glorious and unwise, who fights battles over the table, and in the ardour of his conversation, though amongst enviers and enemies, keeps no watch upon his words, confiding in their candour and believing them his friends. Such a man was admiral lord Rodney, whom history will record amongst the foremost of our naval heroes, and whoever doubts his courage might as well dispute against the light of the sun at noonday.

'That he carried this projected manœuvre into operation, and that the effect of it was successfully decisive, all the world knows. My friend sir Charles Douglas, captain of the fleet, confessed to me that he himself had been adverse to the experiment, and in discussing it with the admiral had stated his objections; to these he got no other answer but that "his counsel was not called for; he required obedience only, he did not want advice—" Sir Charles also told me

that whilst the project was in operation, (the battle then raging) his own attention being occupied by the gallant defence made by the French Glorieux against the ships that were pouring their fire into her, upon his crying out—"Behold, sir George, the Greeks and Trojans contending for the body of Patroclus!—" the admiral, then pacing the quarter deck in great agitation pending the experiment of his manœuvre, (which in the instance of one ship had unavoidably miscarried) peevishly exclaimed—"Damn the Greeks and damn the Trojans; I have other things to think of—" When in a few minutes after, his supporting ship having led through the French line in a gallant style, turning with a smile of joy to sir Charles Douglas, he cried out—"Now, my dear friend, I am at the service of your Greeks and Trojans, and the whole of Homer's Iliad, or as much of it as you please; for the enemy is in confusion, and our victory is secure—" This anecdote, correctly as I relate it, I had from that gallant officer, untimely lost to his country, whose candour scorned to rob his admiral of one leaf of his laurels, and who, disclaiming all share in the manœuvre, nay confessing he had objected to it, did in the most pointed and decided terms again and again repeat his honourable attestations of the courage and conduct of his commanding officer on that memorable day.' P. 298.

In the year 1780 Mr. Cumberland was employed in a secret negotiation with Spain, for which purpose he sailed to Portugal in the Milford frigate, with his family; and he relates his adventures and transactions, which possess considerable interest. The treaty, however, did not succeed; and, to the indelible disgrace of the administration which employed him, he was not paid his expenses and disbursements, to the amount of near five thousand pounds.

In Mr. Cumberland's accounts of theatrical writings and performers we were naturally led to expect some portraits of actors and their peculiar excellencies. But the provision of materials of this kind is scanty. Perhaps it may never happen that a master in the art of acting, as well as of writing, shall present us with a second course of brilliant and spirited analyses of actorial powers equal to those in The Life of Colley Cibber. All the portraits of Cumberland want the rapidity, density, and effect of those which Cibber has drawn in his Memoirs. But if it fell not in the province of Cumberland to analyse the histrionic art, yet in feeling and conception he frequently shines with great brilliance. The actress called The *Tiranna*, on the stage at Madrid, furnishes an eminent example.

'My friend count Pietra Santa, who had honourable access to this great stage-heroine, intimated to her the very high expectation I had formed of her performances, and the eager desire I had to see her in one of her capital characters, telling her at the same time that I had been a writer for the stage in my own country: in consequence of this intimation she sent me word that I should have notice from her, when she wished me to come to the theatre; till when, she desired

I would not present myself in my box upon any night, though her name might be in the bill, for it was only when she liked her part, and was in the humour to play well, that she wished me to be present.

'In obedience to her message I waited several days, and at last received the looked-for summons; I had not been many minutes in the theatre before she sent a mandate to me to go home, for that she was in no disposition that evening for playing well, and should neither do justice to her own talents, nor to my expectations. I instantly obeyed this whimsical injunction, knowing it to be so perfectly in character with the capricious humour of her tribe. When something more than a week had passed, I was again invited to the theatre, and permitted to sit out the whole representation. I had not then enough of the language to understand much more than the incidents and action of the play, which was of the deepest cast of tragedy; for in the course of the plot she murdered her infant children, and exhibited them dead on the stage lying on each side of her; whilst she, sitting on the bare floor between them (her attitude, action, features, tones, defying all description) presented such a high-wrought picture of hysteric phrensy, *laughing wild amidst severest woe*, as placed her in my judgment at the very summit of her art: in fact, I have no conception that the powers of acting can be carried higher; and such was the effect upon the audience, that whilst the spectators in the pit, having caught a kind of sympathetic phrensy from the scene, were rising up in a tumultuous manner, the word was given out by authority for letting fall the curtain, and a catastrophe, probably too strong for exhibition, was not allowed to be completed.

'A few minutes had passed, when this wonderful creature, led in by Pietra Santa, entered my box: the artificial paleness of her cheeks, her eyes, which she had dyed of a bright vermilion round the edges of the lids, her fine arms bare to the shoulders, the wild magnificence of her attire, and the profusion of her dishevelled locks, glossy black as the plumage of the raven, gave her the appearance of something so more than human, such a sybil, such an imaginary being, so awful, so impressive, that my blood chilled as she approached me not to ask but to claim my applause, demanding of me if I had ever seen any actress that could be compared with her, in my own or any other country. "I was determined," she said, "to exert myself for you this night; and if the sensibility of the audience would have suffered me to have concluded the scene, I should have convinced you that I do not boast of my own performances without reason."' P. 390.

After the dismissal of the board of trade, under Mr. Burke's bill, our author retired into Kent, and returned to his studies. Here it was that he collected materials for those essays which were published under the title of The Observer; and about this period he brought out the comedy of The Walloons, and afterwards The Mysterious Husband. But we must decline any minute attention to the mass of this author's productions, consisting, as he thinks, of at least fifty dramas published and unpublished, exclusive of other writings.

At page 470 Mr. C. indulges himself somewhat at length, but

not with a first rate felicity of manner, in remarks on the public folly with regard to Master Betty; an absurdity of judgment which in the nature of things must cure itself.

'About the time at which my story points, my tragedy of The Carmelite was acted at Drury-Lane, and most ably supported by Mrs. Siddons, who took the part of the lady of St. Valori, and also spoke the epilogue. She played inimitably, and in those days, when only men and women trode the stage, the public were contented with what was perfect in nature, and of course admired and applauded Mrs. Siddons: they could then also see merit in Mr. Kemble, who was in the commencement of his career, and appeared in the character of the youthful Montgomeri: the audiences of that time did not think the worse of him because he had reached the age of manhood, and appeared before them in the full stature and complete maturity of one of the finest forms that probably was ever exhibited upon a public stage. A revolution since then has taken place; a caprice, as ridiculous as it is extraordinary, and a general act of superannuation has gone forth against every male performer that has a beard. How I am to style this young child of fortune, this adopted favourite of the public, I don't rightly know; the bills of Covent-Garden announce him as Master Betty, those of Drury-Lane as The Young Roscius. Roscius, as I believe upon the authority of Shakespear, *was an actor in Rome*; and Cicero, who admired him, made a speech in his praise: all this of course is very right on both sides, and exactly as it should be. Mr. Harris announces him to the old women in the galleries in a phrase that is familiar to them; whilst Mr. Sheridan, presenting him to the senators in the boxes by the style and title of Roscius, fails perhaps in his little representative of the great Roman actor, but perfectly succeeds in his own similitude to the eloquent Roman orator. In the mean time my friend Smith of Bury, with all that zeal for merit which is natural to him, marries him to Melpomene with the ring of Garrick, and, strewing roses of Parnassus on the nuptial couch, crowns happy Master Betty, alias Young Roscius, with a never-fading chaplet of immortal verse——

> 'And now when death dissolves his mortal frame,
> His soul shall mount to heaven from whence it came,
> Earth keep his ashes, verse preserve his fame.' P. 470.

The stories of a bear left solitary by a misjudging populace, who ran to stare at Master Betty; and of an artist who became bankrupt by speculating in mechanical snakes, are but feeble tales.

A few pages are devoted to civil things spoken of his still surviving friends, Messrs. Dilly, Rogers, Sharpe, sir J. B. Burgess, and the countess of Derby; and he gives an animated, but rather prolix account of the character and last days of lord Sackville.

On the occasion of his novel Arundel, we find a few rules for novel-writing, in P. 498, which, though they do not embrace the whole of the subject, are well deserving attention.

The poem of Calvary leads our author to some just observations upon the Paradise Lost of Milton. Calvary had but a languid sale, until a smaller edition was substituted to that in the quarto size. Short notices of the more recent theatrical works of Mr. Cumberland are given towards the end of his volume; and the author winds up his narrative by an account of the present state of his family and immediate descendants. And here we shall also conclude, with an assurance to our readers that this work will afford much entertainment, with some instruction.

ART. VII.—*Mémoires d'un Père, pour servir à l'Instruction de ses Enfans, &c.* 4 *Vols.* 12*mo.* Paris, 1805. London reprinted for M. Peltier.

Memoirs of Marmontel, written by Himself; containing his literary and political Life, and Anecdotes of the principal Characters of the Eighteenth Century. Translated from the French. 4 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 1*l.* 1*s. Boards.* Longman and Co. 1805.

THE lively, the amiable, the descriptive Marmontel has written his own life for the instruction of his children, at the request of their mother. He was born at Bort, a little town in Limosin—a place of which he gives a description in that style of picturesque assemblage and pleasing associations which the world has so long admired in his Moral Tales. All the scenes of his childhood, his early acquisitions, the pleasures and the pains which gave the first characters to his mind, are given in a detail which he fears may seem minute and trifling to common eyes, but cannot be so to his children. Though we have not found them such, yet we shall forbear to dwell upon incidents which owe their chief interest to the animated conception and varied powers of narrative of the writer. His parents were poor and industrious. It was by the urgent desire of his mother that her eldest son was destined to have a classical education. The first rudiments of this education were acquired in the school of the Jesuits, at Mauriac; and, after several school events, which are well told, he determined, at the age of fifteen, to be no longer a charge to his family. Attestations were procured from the masters of the school, with which he presented himself to the head master of another school of the same society at Clermont. He knew that his testimonials would have been sufficient to admit him into the class of philosophy instantly, and without examination; but this was not what he wanted. Verbal praise, however strong, makes but a faint impression: he was desirous of producing a more effectual result by procuring himself to be examined. His determination and conduct, at this early age, are very honourable to his ability and principles.

'I addressed myself to the head master; and, without saying where I came from, I asked him permission to enter the class of philosophy. "Where do you come from?" demanded he.—"From Bort, father."—"And where have you studied?"—Here I suffered myself to use some evasion. "I have been studying," said I, "with a country curate." A sign of disdain was visible on his brows and lips; and, opening a book of exercises, he proposed to me one, in which there was no difficulty. I did it with a stroke of the pen, and with some elegance. "And you," said he, on reading it, "you have had a country curate for your master?"—"Yes, father."—"This evening you shall translate." It chanced to be part of an oration of Cicero, that I had seen when in rhetorick; I therefore translated it without difficulty, and as quick as I had done the exercise. "And is it, indeed," said he, on reading my translation, "at a country curate's, that you have studied?"—"You must plainly perceive it," said I.—"That I may see it still better, to-morrow you shall compose a theme." In this prolonged examination, I thought I discovered a curiosity that was favourable to me The subject he proposed to me was not less encouraging: it was the regret and parting of a boy that leaves his parents for school. What more analogous to my situation and to the affections of my soul! I would I could recollect the expression I gave to the feelings of the son and the mother. Those words, dictated by nature, and whose eloquent simplicity art can never imitate, were watered with my tears, and the master perceived it. But what most astonished him (for there truth itself resembled invention) was the passage where, rising above myself, I made the youth address his father, and tell him of the courage he felt to become, one day, by force of application and study, the consolation, the support, and honour of his old age; and of restoring, to his other children, what his education had cost. "And you have studied at a country curate's!" exclaimed my Jesuit, yet more loudly.—For this time I was silent, and only cast down my eyes. "And verses," resumed he, "has your country curate taught you to make them too?"—I answered that I had some notion of it, but very little habit.—"That is what I should be glad to know," said he, smiling. "Come this evening before the lecture hour." The subject of the verses was, *What is the difference between feigning and lying?* This was precisely an excuse that he, perhaps, intentionally offered me.

'I studied to represent feigning as a pure joke, or an innocent artifice; an ingenious art of amusing, in order to instruct; sometimes, even a sublime art to embellish truth herself, to render her more amiable, more touching, more attracting, by lending her a thin transparent veil, covered with flowers. In lying, it was easy for me to show the baseness of the mind that betrayed its feeling or its judgment; and the impudence of the crafty knave, that perverts and disfigures truth, in order to impose, and whose language bears the character of trick, malice, fraud, and dishonour.

'"Now, tell me," said the adroit Jesuit, "whether you lied or feigned, when you told me that a country curate had been your master; for I am almost certain that you have studied with us at Mauriac."—"Though both be true, father," said I, "I confess that I should have told a lie, if my intention had been to deceive you; but, in deferring to tell you what you at present know, I had no desire of disguising the truth, or of leaving you in error. I wanted to be known to you, better than by attestations: I had good ones to produce

to you, and here they are. On these testimonies, and without examination, you would have granted me my first request; and I had one to make you, much more essential to me. While I study, I must teach; and you must have the kindness to make me gain my living, by giving me scholars. My parents are poor, and their children numerous; I have already cost them too much; I will no longer be a burden to them; and, till I shall be able to succour them, I ask of you what every man in misfortune may ask without blushing, employment and bread."—"Ah, child," said he, "at your age, have you the means of commanding attention, obedience, and respect, among your equals? You are scarcely fifteen."—"True; but, father, do you reckon for nothing misfortune and its influence? Do you think it does not advance the authority of reason, and the maturity of age? Try me; you will, perhaps, find my character sufficiently grave to make you forget my youth."—"I will see," said he, "I will consider of it."—"No, father, no consideration is necessary: I entreat you to put me from this moment on the list of private tutors at this school, and to furnish me with scholars. It is immaterial to me from what classes; I dare answer for it, they shall do their duty, and you shall be contented with me." He promised me; but rather feebly; and, with a note from his hand, I went to begin my course of logick.' P. 74.

This promise, however, seemed not likely to be followed by speedy performance, when a lady, who took notice of him, proposed that he should quit the Jesuits, and go to the fathers of the Oratory at Riom. This alarmed the former, who had begun to think well of his talents; and in order to prevent those rival priests from depriving them of a promising subject, recommendations were given by the superiors, which produced a class of scholars sufficient to place him above want. At the end of his second year, he had the misfortune to lose his father. He hastened home, found his family (consisting of his mother, his grandmother, two aunts, and his brothers and sisters) sunk in affliction, and determined to devote himself to their support and protection.

'In the middle of the night, I arrive at my mother's door; I knock, I name myself, and instantly I hear a plaintive murmur and a mixture of groaning voices. All the family get up, the door is opened; and, on entering, I am encircled by my weeping friends; mother, children, old helpless women, all almost naked, dishevelled, resembling spectres, and extending their arms to me with cries that pierce and rend my heart. I know not what force, a force that nature surely reserves for extreme misery, suddenly displayed itself within me. I never felt so superior to myself. I had to raise an enormous weight of grief; I did not sink under it. I opened my arms, my bosom to these wretched creatures; I received them all with the assurance of a man inspired by heaven; and without manifesting weakness, without shedding a tear, I, who weep so easily, "Mother, brothers, sisters, we experience," said I to them, "the greatest of afflictions; let it not overcome us. Children, you lose a father, and you find one; I am he, I will be a father to you; I embrace all his duties: you are no

longer orphans." At these words, rivers of tears, but tears much less bitter, flowed from their eyes. "Ah!" cried my mother, as she pressed me to her heart, "my boy! my dear boy! I knew you well!" and my brothers, my sisters, my good aunts, my grandmother, fell on their knees. This touching scene would have lasted through the night, had I been able to support it. I was faint with fatigue; I asked for a bed!' P. 91.

He fulfilled this sacred engagement very effectually in the sequel. After the first emotions of grief had subsided, Mr. M. pursued his studies, to qualify himself for the priesthood. The different events attending this course, the friends he had the good fortune to make, his hopes, and the vicissitudes of his situation, keep the attention constantly awake; but, if we were to attempt to give even the heads of a number of events, in which the genius, the diligence, the ardent benevolence, and elevated principles of the author are displayed in elegant and unaffected language, at the same time that they are enlivened by well-drawn characters of different personages, it would carry us far beyond any limits suitable to the present article. Some difficulties which were opposed to his ordination, by an adversary who had been defeated by Mr. M., on the occasion of electing a candidate to one of the scholarships in the College of St. Catherine, induced him to turn his thoughts from the profession of divinity. Literature at Paris (recommended to him by Voltaire, with whom he had begun a correspondence), and the bar at Toulouse, were the objects to which his deliberations were now directed. He consulted his mother. That worthy woman appeared to incline to his going to Paris, provided he could have some situation to depend on, and enable him to pursue his studies. M. Ori, the comptroller-general of finance, undertook, at the request of Voltaire, to do this. Marmontel's whole savings of money were disposed of in paying one year's advance at the school where he had placed his brother. With half-a-crown in his pocket, he departed from Toulouse; but he was to find a fresh supply at Montauban. The academy at that place gave a yearly prize of a silver lyre, which Mr. M. had gained, but had not taken away. On his arrival at that place, he received and immediately sold it; the value being twelve guineas. Of this sum, after treating his Toulouse friends, and paying in advance for the expenses of his journey, he found he had six guineas remaining, and with this fund he proceeded towards Paris.

On his arrival at the capital he waited on Voltaire, who received him with great cordiality, but at the same time communicated the bad news that M. Ori was no longer in favour. This unexpected blow was accompanied with offers of pecuniary assistance, and an assurance that his active friendship should not be wanting. Mr. M. took a lodging, translated the Rape of the Lock, and sold it for twelve guineas. By Voltaire's advice, he directed his studies to the drama, being furnished with books and

a free admission to the theatre by that friend. At the house of this great man, he became acquainted with various eminent characters, and men remarkable for singularities of every description. But at the same time he gradually sunk into those pecuniary difficulties which with scarcely a single exception have inevitably, at some part of their life, been the lot of men who have depended on literary works for their entire support. In this conjuncture he was happily relieved, and his affairs took a smiling turn, by his being appointed tutor to the children of Mr. Gilly, an East India director, under the charge of madame Harens. The company which met at this lady's house was perfectly well chosen, and afforded many years of happiness to our author.

Soon afterwards he finished a tragedy on the story of Dionysius the Tyrant. It was received at the theatre, and for the first time Marmontel began to feel the embarrassments of an author who writes for the stage. The parts were to be cast. Were the performers satisfied?—No. We recollect a picture of the situation and difficulties of an author, with regard to the distribution of the parts of a theatrical piece, which is admirably drawn by Holcroft in his Hugh Trevor. Marmontel's narrative has merit of another kind; it possesses neither the neatness nor the force of that of the English writer: Holcroft's group of performers are drawn with the pen of keen and refined satire; but Marmontel relates his incidents with mildness tempered with vexation.

Next succeeded the rehearsals, and judgments by anticipation of real and of pretended critics. They are very entertaining. The piece succeeded. Riches and celebrity now became the lot of Marmontel. Of the former he made a proper use; but not so of the latter. His fame became a cause of dissipation. Many of his pages are occupied with the story of an intimacy with mademoiselle Navarre. The easy libertinism of the French, and their habits not only of acting freely in affairs of gallantry, but even of discussing them in their conversations and writings, are very remote from the manners of this country. It is true, indeed, that we find nothing gross or sensual in this part of his works, any more than in those Tales which he calls Moral, but in most of which the French arrangements of intrigue are treated as mere matters of course. After passing some time at a distance from Paris, in company with mademoiselle Navarre, who delighted in the capricious infliction of torments, her father recalled her to Brussels, and he returned to Paris. Their correspondence continued for some time; but at last the lady formed a new attachment with the brother of the famous Mirabeau, who married her, and left the impassioned Marmontel in a state of languor and despair. The remaining adventures of this lady, to the time of her death, are related. His perfect cure from this passion was effected by an arrangement with the famous Clairon.

'Mademoiselle Clairon, who saw the languor into which I had fallen, was eager to find its remedy. "My dear friend," said she, "your heart has need of love, and this weary anxiety is but want of love: this heart must be occupied, must be filled. Is there then but one woman in the world who can be lovely in your eyes?"—"I know but one only," said I, "who could console me, if she were inclined; could she but be so generous as to feel this inclination!"—"This is what we must know," replied she with a smile. "Is she of my acquaintance? I'll aid you if I can."—"Yes, you know her, and have much influence over her."—"Well! name her; I'll speak for you. I'll tell her that you love from the heart; that you are capable of all the constancy and fidelity she can wish for, and that she is sure of being happy in loving you."—"Do you then believe all this of me?"—"Yes, I am fully persuaded of it."—"Then have the kindness to tell it to yourself."—"To myself, my dear friend?"—"To yourself."—"Ah! if it depend on me, you shall be consoled, and the glory shall be mine."

'Thus was this new connection formed, and which, as may well be foreseen, was not of long duration: but it had for me the inestimable advantage of re-animating me to study. Never were love, and love of glory, more happily united than in my heart.

'*Dionysius* was revived; and it had now the same success as in its novelty. The part of Arétie sensibly increased in interest by the exertions of her to whom nothing was dearer than my glory. She was more sublime, more enchanting in it than ever; and you may imagine with what pleasure the applauded actress and applauded author retired home to sup together.' P. 280.

But the lady was fickle, and the denouement of this adventure is curious and characteristic.

'She had a friend with whom we sometimes supped. One day she said to me: "Don't go there this evening, you would be uncomfortable: the Bailli de Fleury will sup there, and is to bring me back."—"I know him," answered I most simply, "he'll bring me back too."—"No," said she, "he will be only in a vis-à-vis." This word was a ray of light: and as she saw I was struck with it: "Well, my dear friend," said she, "'tis a whim of mine, you must pardon it."—"Is it indeed true?" said I, "do you speak seriously?"—"Yes, I am sometimes foolish, mad, but you will never find me false."—"I thank you for your candour," said I, "and I resign the place to M. le Bailli." For this time I felt courage and reason; and what happened to me the day after taught me how much more congenial and more grateful to my heart was an honourable sentiment, than a frivolous and passing inclination.' P. 283.

Leaving these adventures and their vicissitudes, we accompany our author to the assemblies of the great men of that age. Montesquieu, Fontenelle, Mairan, Marivaux, the younger Helvetius, Astruc, and others met at mademoiselle de Tancin's. These characters occasionally give animation to the scene. The intimacy of the author with M. de la Popliniere, a rich financier, blends itself for a considerable time with his adventures, and to-

wards the end of this first volume Voltaire appears more prominently, together with Diderot, Helvetius, Grim, and Rousseau. The great mental powersas well as the singular reserve and misanthropy that governed Rousseau's conduct are rather fully discussed.

'No one ever observed more strictly than he the melancholy maxim of *living with his friends as if they were one day to be his enemies.* When I first knew him, he had just borne the prize of eloquence at the academy of Dijon, with that fine sophism in which he has imputed to the sciences and the arts the natural effects of the prosperity and wealth of nations. Yet he had not then declared himself as he has since done, nor did he announce any ambition to form a sect. Either his pride was unborn, or he concealed it under the show of a timid politeness, that was sometimes even obsequious, and bordered on humility. But in his fearful reserve, distrust was evidently visible; his eye secretly observed every thing with a suspicious attention. He was very rarely affable, and never opened his heart. He was not the less amicably received; as we knew he indulged a restless self-love; tetchy, easily hurt, he was humoured, treated with the same attention, and the same delicacy that we should use toward a beautiful woman, very vain, and very capricious, whose favours we wished to obtain. He was then composing the music for the *Devin de Village*, and he sung to us at the harpsichord the airs he had written. We were charmed with them; we were not less so with the firm, animated, and profound manner, in which his first essay on eloquence was written. Nothing could be more sincere, I ought to say it, than our benevolence for his person, nor than our esteem for his talents. It is the recollection of these days that made me indignant against him, when I saw him, for foolish trifles, or wrongs of his own creating, calumniate men who treated him so kindly, and would have been so happy to love him. I have lived with them all their lives; I shall have occasion to speak of their minds and their hearts. I never perceived in them any thing like the character that his evil genius attributed to them.

'The fruit I gathered from his society, and from his example, was a return of reflection on the imprudence of my youth. There, said I, is a man who has given himself time to think before he wrote; and I, in the most difficult and the most perilous of arts, I have hastened to write almost before I had thought. Twenty years of study and meditation, in silence and retreat, have amassed, ripened, and fertilized his knowledge; and I scatter my ideas when they are scarcely blown, and before they have acquired their vigour and their growth. Thus in his first productions there is an astonishing abundance, a perfect manhood; and in mine all partakes of the greenness and feebleness of a talent that study and reflection have not nourished long enough. My only excuse was my poverty, and the necessity of labouring incessantly and hastily to procure my subsistence. I resolved to extricate myself from this sad situation, were I even obliged to renounce poetry.' P. 346.

At this period he was introduced to the famous madame de Pompadour, by whose influence the place of *secretaire des bâti-*

mens was given him. Count Kaunitz ambassador from the court of Vienna, and lord Albemarle, were among the author's friends at this time. The story of mademoiselle Gaucher the mistress of lord A. is interesting.

The affairs of the *menus plaisirs*, and the different characters about the court, occupy most part of the remainder of the present volume. By intrigues among these personages Crebillon was preferred to Voltaire; and this was nearly decisive in his acceptance of the king of Prussia's invitation to Berlin. The circumstances attending his decision are diverting in themselves, and well told.

'These disappointments determined his journey into Prussia. One difficulty only still retarded it, and the way in which that was removed is curious enough to amuse you for a moment.

'The difficulty consisted in the expenses of the journey, about which Frederic suffered himself to be a little baited. He was willing to defray Voltaire, and for that purpose he consented to give him a thousand pounds. But madame Denis wanted to accompany her uncle, and for this additional expense Voltaire asked for another thousand pounds. This was what the king of Prussia would not listen to. "I shall be very happy," said he in his answer, "that madame Denis accompanies you; but I do not ask it."—"Look," said Voltaire to me, "at this meanness in a king. He has barrels of gold, and he won't give a thousand poor pounds for the pleasure of seeing madame Denis at Berlin! He shall give them, or I myself will not go." A comical incident came and finished this dispute. One morning, as I was going to see him, I found his friend Thiriot in the garden of the Palais-Royal, and as I was always on the watch for literary news, I asked him if he had heard any. "Yes," said he, "there is most curious news: you are going to M. de Voltaire's, and there you shall hear it; for I am going there as soon as I shall have taken my coffee."

'Voltaire was writing in his bed when I went in: in his turn he asked me: "What's the news?"—"I know none," said I, "but Thiriot, whom I have met in the Palais-Royal, says he has something very interesting to tell you. He is coming."

'"Well, Thiriot," said he, "you have some curious news to tell us?"—"Oh! very curious, and that will please you particularly," answered Thiriot, with his sardonic laugh, and the nasal twang of a capuchin.—"Let's hear; what have you to tell?"—"I have to tell you that Arnaud-Baculard is arrived at Potsdam, and that the king of Prussia has received him with open arms."—"With open arms!"—"That Arnaud has presented him an epistle."—"Very bombastical and very insipid?"—"Not at all, very fine; so fine that the king has answered it by another epistle."—"The king of Prussia, an epistle to Arnaud! No, no, Thiriot; they have been making a joke of you."—"I don't know what you call a joke, but I have the two epistles in my pocket."—"Let's see, quick, let me read these masterpieces of poetry. What insipidity! what meanness! how egregiously stupid!" said he, in reading the epistle of Arnaud: then, passing to

that of the king, he read a moment in silence and with an air of pity. But when he came to these verses:

> " Voltaire's a setting sun;
> But you are in your dawn;"

he started up, and jumped from his bed, bounding with rage: " Voltaire a setting sun, and Baculard in his dawn! and it is a king who writes this enormous folly! let him think only of reigning!"

' It was with difficulty that Thiriot and I could prevent ourselves from bursting into laughter to see Voltaire in his shirt, dancing with passion, and addressing himself to the king of Prussia. " I'll go," said he, " yes, I'll go to teach him to know men;" and from that moment his journey was decided. I have suspected that the king of Prussia intentionally gave him this spur, and without that I doubt whether he would have gone, so angry was he at the refusal of the thousand pounds, not at all out of avarice, but out of indignation at not having obtained what he asked.

' Obstinate to excess by character and by system, he had even in little things an incredible repugnance to yield and to renounce what he had resolved on. I again saw a singular instance of it just before his departure. He had taken a fancy to carry a cutlass with him on his journey; and one morning, when I was at his house, a bundle of them was brought that he might choose one. He chose it. But the cutler wanted twenty shillings for it, and Voltaire took it into his head that he would give but fifteen. He then begins to calculate in detail what it may be worth; he adds, that the cutler bears in his face the character of an honest man, and that with this good faith written on his forehead, he will confess that the instrument will be well paid at fifteen shillings. The cutler accepts the eulogy that he is pleased to make on his face, but he answers, that as an honest man he has but one word; that he asks no more than the thing is worth, and that, were he to sell it at a lower price, he should wrong his children. " What, you have children, have you?" asked Voltaire.—" Yes, sir, I have five, three boys and two girls, the youngest of whom is just twelve."—" Well! we'll think about placing your boys and marrying your girls. I have friends in the treasury, I have some credit in the public offices: but let's finish this little affair: here are your fifteen shillings; say no more about it." The good cutler was confused in thanking Voltaire for the protection with which he was pleased to honour him; but he still kept to his first word about the price of the cutlass, and did not abate one farthing. I abridge this scene, which lasted a quarter of an hour by the turns of eloquence and seduction that Voltaire employed in vain, not to save five shillings that he would have given to a beggar, but to give to his will the empire of persuasion. He was obliged to yield; and with a troubled, indignant, confused air, he threw the crown upon the table that he relinquished so unwillingly. The cutler, when he had got his money, returned him thanks for his favours and went away. " I am very glad," said I in a low voice, as I saw him go out.—" Of what?" said Voltaire, angrily, " What are you glad of?"—" That this honest man's family is no longer to be pitied. His sons will soon be placed; his daughters married; and he, in the mean time, has sold his cutlass for

what he wanted, and you have paid it in spite of all your eloquence." —"And this is what you are glad of, you obstinate Limosin?"—"Oh! yes: I am quite pleased; if he had yielded to you, I believe I should have beaten him."—"Do you know," said he, laughing in his sleeve, after a moment's silence, "that if Moliere had been witness to such a scene, he would have turned it to some profit?" "Indeed," said I, "it would have been the sequel to that of M. Dimanche." It was thus that with me his anger, or rather his petulance, always terminated in gentleness and friendship.' P. 397.

The first volume of this interesting work contains, as the author expresses himself, the errors of his youth. In his subsequent adventures his course of life was less dissipated and more prudent; but we shall for the present take leave of him.

[To be continued.] 270

ART. VIII.—*War in Disguise; or, The Frauds of Neutral Flags.* 8*vo.* 252 *Pages.* J. Hatchard.

IN the humble form of a pamphlet the reader will have the satisfaction to find a complete treatise on a subject of the greatest importance in a national point of view, and which is of such general concern as to affect at once the commercial interests of a large and respectable class of our fellow-subjects; the valiant enterprises of our soldiers and seamen; and the political relations of the British empire with respect to some of the sovereigns and states on the continent of Europe, but more particularly our present friendly mercantile connexions with the United States of America.

The abuses it holds forth to public animadversion are of the first magnitude; the remedy it proposes efficacious; and nothing is wanting to carry it into immediate execution but vigour and perseverance on the part of government; since it evidently appears, from the statement of facts contained in this valuable production, that the timidity, the fear of offending some of our continental allies, and persisting in defensive measures since the commencement of the present war, have been the cause of the abuses so justly complained of being practised to such an extent with impunity, as to be no longer tolerated without the most imminent danger of sacrificing a considerable portion of our commerce in different parts of the globe to professed allies, who are in disguise the worst of foes.

It is no disparagement to this useful publication that the author has not thought it prudent to make himself known; for an attentive perusal of its contents will soon convince an impartial judge that he is thoroughly master of his subject, and that sage experience has been his preceptor.

Nothing could be better timed than the circulation of a second, improved edition of this treatise,—in the crisis of a new administration, from whose active, energetic, and decisive measures, we may rationally expect a resolute application to the powers concerned for the redress of such an intolerable evil, or coercive means of putting a stop to the grossest violations of treaties of amity and neutrality.

Our anonymous author has given us a clue, in a short preface, which may serve as a guide to the relative situation in which he is placed, and by which he has been enabled to detect and expose the numerous frauds of the *neutral flags*.

His facts are, for the most part, derived, as the reader will perceive, from those authentic and original sources of information the records of our courts of prizes (the Admiralty Court, and the Lords Commissioners of Appeals in Prize Causes at the Cock-pit, Whitehall), and it may therefore, perhaps, be surmised that some practitioner in those courts, if not the author of the arguments, has at least contributed his aid in furnishing premises for its use.

Adverting to the probability of such a conjecture, and to an erroneous notion which he knows to be very prevalent, namely, that the practitioners in the Admiralty courts have an interest opposite to the pretensions of neutral merchants, he thinks it right to guard both his facts and his opinions against this source of jealousy by one brief remark—

'Contests in the prize jurisdiction arise, almost exclusively, from claims of property preferred by neutrals; and therefore the business of the prize courts would obviously be impaired, not extended, by narrowing the legal confines of the neutral flags.'

After paying a just tribute of praise to our gallant naval officers and seamen in another part of his preface, in the following animated eulogiums—

'Our immortal Nelson and his brave successor in command have materially thrown back the naval preparations of Buonaparte, and dashed his rising hopes of ships, colonies, and commerce. The gallant sir Richard Strachan has since given the usurper another proof, that more than equality of force, and more even than intrepidity of conduct, is necessary to protect his flag from the most signal and entire defeats in a conflict with British seamen, &c.'—

he remarks, that a deduction from some of the dangers to which his pages relate has been the result of these glorious victories; but still enough of peril as well as mischief arises from the present abuses of neutral privilege, to make a longer submission to them highly dangerous and imprudent.

'Let us not be so ungrateful as to consider less anxiously the rights and interests of our brave seamen, because their heroic exploits have

improved our security; nor let the glorious dying donation of Nelson to his country prove like a rich legacy to a prodigal, by confirming us in the waste of our maritime patrimony, and thereby insuring, though it may retard, our ruin.'

The introductory pages of this interesting investigation present to the reader several judicious remarks applicable to the main subject, which we cannot dispense with selecting, as essentially necessary to our review of the succeeding strong facts and convincing arguments.

'The political atmosphere of Europe is become darker than ever; and the storm menaces a wider range, as well as a lengthened duration. At such a period it is wise to look backward, to review the plan on which the war has hitherto been conducted, and inquire whether experience has not proved it to be in some points erroneous or defective. The season seems favourable for improvement, especially in our offensive measures, since new relations will, in all probability, demand an important change in them. A single campaign, if disastrous to our allies,

(which has fatally happened since our author sent his work to the press)

' may realise some of the late threats of Buonaparte. The plan which this exasperated enemy has formed for our destruction is of a nature far more formidable than that which he ostentatiously displays. The flotilla at Boulogne and the army on the coast have chiefly excited our attention; but the restitution of his regular marine, and the increase of the confederated navies, have been the usurper's more rational dependance, and the means of war which he has been indefatigably labouring to provide. Enraged at the interruption of his plan by his quarrel with Austria, he now avows, in his complaints, its real nature and magnitude. He asserts, to the Germanic diet, that he has been employing all the resources of his empire to construct fleets, to form his marine, and to improve his ports."

To what an alarming degree he has succeeded in these points will be demonstrated before we close our review of this article. 'In preparations like these,' says our intelligent author, 'consists the chief danger, not only of England but of Europe; for the fall of this country, or what would be the same in effect, the loss, at this perilous conjuncture, of our superiority at sea, would remove from before the ambition of France almost every obstacle by which its march to universal empire could be finally impeded.' We are then cautioned against proudly disdaining to suppose the possibility of such a reverse.

'Let us reflect what the navies of France, Spain, and Holland once were; let us consider that these countries form but a part of those vast maritime regions which are now at the command of our inveterate enemy (Genoa alone, it is computed, can supply 10,000 able seamen); and if these considerations are not sufficient to repel a dangerous con-

fidence, let those great maritime advantages of France, which the following pages will expose, be added to the account; for I propose to show, in the encroachments and frauds of the neutral flags, a nursery and a refuge of the confederated navies, as well as the secret conduits of a large part of those imperial resources, the pernicious application of which to the restitution of his marine the usurper has lately boasted. Also, to show in them his best hopes in a naval war, as well as channels of a revenue, which sustains the ambition of France, and prolongs the miseries of Europe.'

Having given a sketch of the preliminaries, we now proceed to a regular discussion of the abuses whereby the shield of an insidious neutrality is cast between the enemy and the sword of our naval power. In the hope of contributing to the correction of this great evil, our author proposes to consider—

1st, Its origin, nature, and extent.

2d, The remedy; and the right of applying it.

3d, The prudence of that resort.

Under the first of these general heads, that part of the important subject is fully discussed which explains the nature of that neutral commerce so little understood by the generality of our fellow-subjects, which has lately in some measure excited the public attention, in consequence of the invectives of Buonaparte, and the complaints of the American merchants, who are the real aggressors.

To render more intelligible the abuses which our author has undertaken to delineate, it was necessary to begin with stating some important historical facts.

'The colonizing powers of Europe, it is well known, have always monopolised the trade of their respective colonies, allowing no supplies to be carried to them under any foreign flag, or on account of any foreign importers, and prohibiting the exportation of their produce in foreign ships, or to any foreign country, till it has been previously brought into the ports of the parent state. Such, with a few trivial and temporary exceptions, has been the universal system in time of peace; and on a close adherence to this system the value of colonies in the new world has been supposed wholly to depend *.

'In the war which commenced in 1756, and was ended by the peace of 1763, France, being hard pressed by our maritime superiority, and unable with safety either to send the requisite supplies to her West India islands, or to bring their produce to the European markets under her own mercantile flag, resorted to the expedient of relaxing her colonial monopoly, and admitted neutral vessels, under certain restrictions, to carry the produce of those islands to French or foreign ports in Europe. Of course, it was so carried, either really or ostensibly, on neutral account; the object being to avoid capture on the passage.

'But the prize courts of Great Britain, regarding this new trade as unwarranted by the rights of neutrality, condemned such vessels as

* This system was the basis of the celebrated English Navigation Act, 12 Charles II., which served as a model for other colonizing nations.

were captured while engaged in it, together with their cargoes, however clearly the property of both might appear to be in those neutral merchants on whose behalf they were claimed. When the facts which are submitted in these pages to the attention of the reader are fully before him, the justice and importance of this limitation of neutral commerce, which has sometimes been called *the rule of the war of* 1756, will be better understood.'

As a further illustration of this rule, our author quotes from the second volume of The Reports of Dr. Robinson (a work of transcendent merit) the judgment of sir William Scott in the case of the ship *Immanuel*, at the Admiralty Court, in Nov. 1799.

From the total impossibility of following our author through all his extensive details, within a moderate compass, we are obliged to pass over his incontrovertible arguments in support of the rule of 1756, and to proceed to the facts which constitute the charges of gross abuses of the neutral laws and privileges by professed friendly powers, to the great detriment of the British commerce, and the manifest encouragement and support of our revengeful adversary.

At the commencement of the last war in 1793, it became evident that the flag of the United States of America was, for the most part, used to protect the property of the French planter, not of the American merchant.—See pages 20 and 21.

The fraudulent pretences of neutral property increasing, the royal instructions of the 6th of November 1793, " ordering his majesty's ships of war and privateers to stop and detain *for lawful adjudication* all vessels laden with goods the produce of any French colonies, or carrying provisions or other supplies for the use of any such colony," was duly enforced, and seemed to operate severely against the new-born neutral power. Great numbers of ships under American colours were taken in the West Indies, and condemned by the Vice-Admiralty Courts in the British colonies. The instructions, however, being loudly complained of, not only by the American government, but likewise by neutral powers in Europe, it was so far repealed, in January 1794, that instead of the comprehensive order therein contained, the direction only was to seize " such vessels as were laden with goods the produce of the French West India islands, and coming directly from any port of the said islands to Europe."

The latter instruction remained in force till January 1799, when a new one was substituted, which remained unrevoked to the end of the war. By this last royal order a further relaxation of the rule of law was introduced, in consideration, as the preamble expressly recited, of the existing state of our own commerce and that of neutral countries; and the new direction was to bring in for lawful adjudication all " vessels laden with produce of any island or settlement of France, Spain, or Holland, and coming directly from any port of the said island or settlement to any port in Europe, not being a port of this kingdom, or of the coun-

try to which the vessels, being neutral, should belong." In other words—European neutrals might, without being liable to capture, under this last instruction, bring the produce of the hostile colonies directly from thence to ports of their own country; and either these, or the citizens of the United States of America, might now carry such produce directly to England, either of which voyages would have subjected the ship to seizure under the instruction of 1794.

The decisions of the Admiralty Courts, and of the Lords Commissioners of Appeal, consequently proceeded uniformly upon the text of the last instructions: for the results, in various cases, we recommend a reference to page 24, and sequel to p. 35.

On the recommencement of hostilities with France in 1803, the same system was, with little variation, pursued. An instruction, however, dated the 24th of June in that year, directed the commanders of his majesty's ships of war and privateers "*not* to seize any neutral vessels which should be found carrying on trade directly between the colonies of the enemy and the neutral country to which the vessel belonged, and laden with property of the inhabitants of such neutral country; provided that such neutral vessel should not be supplying, nor should have, on the outward voyage, supplied the enemy with any articles contraband of war, and should not be trading with any blockaded ports."

From the whole statement of the historical facts up to this time, it clearly appears, 'that we have receded very far in practice from the application of the equitable rule of the war of 1756 in some points, while we have adhered to it in others; but that the principle of that important rule, in point of right, has never been, at any time, either theoretically or practically abandoned.'

The next inquiry is, What use has been made by neutral merchants of the indulgence which the British government has thus liberally granted? The answer conducts to scenes of extensive fraud, perfidy, and even perjury; which would seem incredible, if the atrocious acts exposed to public view in this excellent tract were not verified by undeniable authentic documents in another publication avowed by the signature of the author's name, and which, with great propriety, will follow as the next article meriting the attention of our readers, after we have closed the present.

The abuses here loyally exposed, with a truly patriotic spirit, are so numerous, and of such an interesting nature to our naval officers and seamen, to our merchants and manufacturers, that we must once more earnestly recommend a perusal of the work itself; whilst, for the satisfaction of our readers, and the better to promote its general circulation, we select some of the most flagrant acts of injustice and of injury to the commerce of the subjects of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

America, we have seen, like other neutral powers, was permitted to carry the produce of the hostile colonies to her own ports, and from thence might export it to Europe; nay, even to

France and Spain. She was also at liberty to import the manufactures of those countries, and might afterwards export the same goods to their colonies; but the word *directly*, in the royal instruction, as well as the spirit of the relaxations in general, plainly required that there should be a *bonâ fide* shipment from, or delivery in, the neutral country. In other words—that the voyage should actually, not colourably, originate or terminate in such a way as the subsisting rule allowed. The American merchants, however, very early began, in their intercourse with the Spaniards, to elude the spirit of the restriction, by calling at their own ports merely in order to obtain new clearances, and then proceeding to Spain, with produce which they had shipped in her colonies; or to the latter with supplies which were taken on board in Spain. The transaction is thus stated:

'When a ship arrived at one of their ports to neutralize a voyage that fell within the restriction—for example, from a Spanish colony to Spain, all her papers were immediately sent on shore, or destroyed. Not one document was left which could disclose the fact, that her cargo had been taken in at a colonial port; and new bills of lading, invoices, clearances, and passports were put on board, all importing that it had been shipped in America. Nor were official certificates and oaths wanting to support the fallacious pretence. The fraudulent precaution of the agents often went so far as to discharge all the officers and crew, and sometimes even the master, and to ship an entire new company in their stead, who, being ignorant of the former branch of the voyage, could, in case of examination or capture, support the new papers by their declarations and oaths, as far as their knowledge extended, with a safe conscience. Thus, the ship and cargo were sent to sea again, perhaps within eight-and-forty hours after her arrival, in a condition to defy the scrutiny of any British cruizer by which she should be stopped and examined in the course of her passage to Europe. By stratagems like these the commerce between our enemies and their colonies was carried on even more securely than if neutrals had been permitted to conduct it in the most open manner, in a direct and single voyage. Those who are conversant with the business of the prize courts well know, that the affidavits in further proof are never wanting to support every case that a claimant may be allowed to set up. It may even be asserted, with truth, that property taken under neutral colours is scarcely ever condemned but by a sentence which, in effect, impeaches the neutral merchants of wilful and elaborate perjury. Nor is the shocking fact surprising, if it be considered that every man who undertakes, for a commission, to cover the enemy's property under neutral papers, engages beforehand to furnish all the perjury that may be necessary to support his claim in case of capture, as an essential part of the contract.'

The mischief to correct which the rule of 1756 was first applied was of a partial and limited kind. In that war neutral ships were not the sole carriers of the produce or supplies of the French colonies; the enemy continued to employ his own commercial flag, as far as his inadequate power of protecting it extended.

But during the last, and in the present war, a far more comprehensive innovation has taken place. France and Holland have totally ceased to trade under their own flags to or from the ports of any of their colonies; and have apparently assigned the whole of these branches of their commerce to the merchants of neutral states. Without enumerating particulars, it may be truly affirmed in few words, that, *not a single merchantship under a flag inimical to Great Britain now crosses the equator, or traverses the Atlantic Ocean.* Though this proposition may seem extraordinary, and perhaps too strange to be believed, yet it forms only part of a still more comprehensive singular truth—*With the exception only of a very small portion of the coasting trade of our enemies, not a mercantile sail of any description now enters or clears out from their ports in any part of the globe but under neutral colours.* This fact is proved by a document referred to in the appendix (E.)

'The commerce which thus eludes the grasp of our naval hostilities, is not only rich and various, but of a truly alarming magnitude. For it is not only in their own ports that our enemies receive the exports of America and of Asia, in contempt of our maritime efforts:—Hamburgh, Altona, Embden, Gottenburgh, Copenhagen, Lisbon, and various other neutral markets, are supplied, and even glutted, with the produce of the West Indies, and the fabrics of the East, brought from the prosperous colonies of powers hostile to our own country. By the rivers and canals of Germany and Flanders, they are floated into the warehouses of our enemies, or circulated for the supply of their customers in neutral countries. They supplant or rival the British planter and merchant, throughout the continent of Europe and in all the ports of the Mediterranean. They supplant even the manufacturers of Manchester, Birmingham, and Yorkshire; for the looms and forges of Germany are put in action by the colonial produce of our enemies, and are rivalling us by the ample supplies they send under neutral flags to every part of the new world.

'Antwerp, a happy station for the exchange of such merchandise, is now rapidly thriving under the fostering care of Buonaparte. His efforts for the restoration of its commerce, during the short interval of peace, produced no very splendid effects; but the neutral flags have proved far more auspicious to the rising hopes of the Scheldt than the colours of Holland and France. Its port has become a favourite haunt of the American West Indiamen, and profits in various ways by the sale of their valuable cargoes.'

See Appendix (F) for the flourishing state of the trade of Antwerp, which, under the dominion of Austria, was totally destitute of foreign commerce.

But what shall we think of the next enormity, when we are informed that British underwriters in London, at a celebrated coffee-house, too well known to need mentioning by name, ensure the property of our enemies, covered by neutral flags, for a considerably less premium than they require for British goods,

in British ships, during the same voyages! It is stated by our author, p. 83, that the insurance on British ships and goods in the Jamaica trade, is 11 per cent.; and on French, Spanish, and Dutch property, protected under neutral flags, only 6; in the Leeward Island trade, it is as 10 to 6: to this disadvantage is to be added the difference of freight in favour of the enemy so protected, owing to our convoy duty: the mode of transacting this business, by a secret article in the policy, is still more infamous—p. 85. Our author is too indulgent in supposing that this conduct, so contrary to the duties of good subjects and upright men, can only proceed from inadvertency, or mistake; but upon a fair review of the fact, we think it deserves the severest censure.

It is true, he reminds them of the moral obligations of obeying in substance, as well as in form, the laws of their country; but as some of these *honourable* underwriters may be called on juries, and be obliged by other laws of their country to condemn a poor culprit to death for a theft of the value of five shillings, they should be warned to compare the magnitude of their own crime, with the diminutive guilt of the party on whom they sit in judgment. See the detail of this nefarious practice, from p. 87 to 93.—We shall only notice "the danger of disloyal correspondence, in order to prevent or defeat a capture."

Let us now advert to the neutralizing parties;

'A man who at the breaking out of the war was a petty shoemaker in a small town in East Friesland, had, at one time, a *hundred and fifty* vessels navigating, as his property, under Prussian colours.'

So much for our good friend the king of Prussia.

With respect to the American States, it may suffice to note a statement given in p. 98;

'The cargoes of no less than five East Indiamen, all composed of the rich exports of Batavia, together with three of the ships, were cotemporary purchases, on speculation, of a single house at Providence, in Rhode Island, and were all bound, as asserted, to that American port, where, it is scarcely necessary to add, *no demand for their cargoes* existed.

'Yet, even these daring adventurers have been eclipsed. One neutral house has boldly contracted for all the merchandise of the Dutch East India company, at Batavia; amounting in value to no less than one million seven hundred thousand pounds sterling.'

The national injuries sustained by the abuses of the neutral flags may well be termed *War in Disguise.* For,

'If the hostile colonies are supplied with all necessary imports, and their produce finds its way to market, the enemy is effectually relieved from the chief pressure of the war; and it is a fact incontrovertible,

that the produce of the West Indies sells cheaper at present, clear of duties, in the ports of our enemies than in our own.

'It appears, then, on the whole, that our enemies carry on their colonial commerce under the neutral flags, cheaply, as well as safely; that they are enabled not only to elude our hostilities, but to rival our merchants and planters in the European markets; and that their comparative as well as positive advantages are such, as to injure our manufacturers, and threaten our colonies with ruin.

'That the hostile treasuries are fed by the same means with a copious stream of revenue, without any apparent pressure on their subjects; a revenue which otherwise would be cut off by the war, or even turned into our own coffers: this is a most obvious and vexatious consequence.

'The mischief, however, by no means terminates in sustaining the French exchequer: it strikes in various directions at the very vitals of our national security; it tends powerfully and directly to the depression of our maritime power, and of the exaltation of the navy of France.'

That we may not appear in the light of party-writers, instead of impartial general reviewers of political productions of the press, of great national import, we refer those useful classes of our fellow subjects, who are deeply interested in probing this wound to the quick, for a solution of the following question—Was any remedy applied to this great evil by Mr. Pitt, or by lord Melville when at the head of the Admiralty? See p. 117, where just praise is given to lord Barham for his animated exertions to suppress the augmented impositions on our prize courts, by obtaining more equitable decisions in favour of the British captors.

It must have astonished all persons conversant in maritime affairs to find that scarcely any *privateers* have been fitted out from British ports during the last and the present war; the mystery is unveiled by our author.

'None but neutral flags are to be found in the harbours of the enemy, and none but *alleged* neutrals afloat. Nothing but vexation and disappointment, also, is the result of the conquest of an enemy's island: the reward of the successful valour of our brave seamen and soldiers is wrested from them by fraudulent neutral claims.—The merchantmen taken by lord St. Vincent, and sir Charles Grey, at Martinico, and Guadaloupe, were all of this description, and, with their cargoes, were ultimately restored.'

The reverse of former wars with France and Spain has unfortunately taken place, more particularly from the commencement of the present war. French and Spanish privateers abound in all quarters of the globe, and meet with success; because British merchantmen have no claims to set up against the captors. The field of capture is entirely open to our grand enemy, and as fertile as British commerce can make it. In few words, the un-

paralleled licence of the neutral flag has so discouraged British privateering, that the practice of it is nearly extinguished.

On the second general head—*The remedy for these evils, and the right of applying it*—our author largely expatiates, in a series of solid arguments, commercial and political, which demonstrate superior ability, and a perfect knowledge of his subject. One specimen will suffice to enable our readers to form an opinion of the whole, which extends from page 140 to 186.

'If neutrals have no right, but through our own gratuitous concession, to carry on the colonial trade of our enemies, we may, after a reasonable notice, withdraw that ruinous indulgence; and meantime hold those who claim the benefit of it to a strict compliance with its terms. If, after the revocation of the licence, the commerce shall still be continued, we may justifiably punish the violators of our belligerent rights, by the seizure and confiscation of such ships as shall be found engaged in the offence, together with their cargoes.'

It remains only to consider the third and last proposition—*The prudence of applying the remedy, in regard to the colonial trade.*

'In this, as in most other questions of practical policy,' says our author, 'especially in the present very difficult times, in is in vain to expect that the alternative to existing evil should be complete and unqualified good. We are sailing in a tempestuous, unknown sea, surrounded with rocks and shoals; and the question is not, whether by changing our course we shall certainly have a prosperous voyage; but whether the ship will labour less, and the breakers, in sight, be avoided. It has been shown, that the extreme licence of the neutral flags teems with mischiefs of a ruinous and fatal tendency to our commerce, to our colonies, to our wooden walls themselves, and to our best hopes in the war; and it remains to see, what new evils or dangers must be encountered, should this pernicious licence be restrained.'

The sum of these opposing considerations seems to be this, "that we may provoke a quarrel with the neutral powers." The degree of this danger is first considered, and in the next place the question, "whether the evils of such a quarrel would be greater than those to which we at present submit?" The discussion of these points occupies the concluding pages; and the results upon both are, "that it is not likely that the United States of America would venture to go to war with us on this account." The same opinion is given with respect to the neutral powers of Europe.

After all, the reins of our government are *now* in no timid hands; and unless we mean to abandon all that remains yet unsurrendered of our maritime, *commercial* rights, peace is more likely to be maintained with the neutral powers, by a firm than by a pusillanimous conduct: for experience has shown that they will not be content while any restriction whatever remains on their intercourse with the enemy which fraud cannot wholly elude.

The appendix consists of a number of official papers, alphabetically arranged, illustrative of the facts and arguments in the body of the pamphlet, from letter A to S, with references to the pages to which each note belongs. From some of them, the patriotic reader will hold us excused for transcribing a few remarkable passages.

'So early as 1799, in an address of the Executive Directory of France, to the Council of Five Hundred, they distinctly stated, that not a single French ship had passed the Sound in the preceding year, and that there was not, at that period, a single merchant vessel navigating under their flag.' (C.)

Such is the flourishing state of the trade of Antwerp, that in the course of the year 1804, no fewer than 2142 vessels were entered inwards; and during the three first quarters only of the present year 1805, the trade had increased so much, that the number entered was 2513. Supposing the current quarter equally productive, the whole number of vessels (under neutral flags) during the year, will be 3350.

The importation of sugar from *Havannah* is immense to the United States, and from thence to Europe, as it appears by an intercepted letter from a considerable mercantile house at New York, to another at Amsterdam. The brown sugar of *Cuba* excels in quality that of Jamaica, and among the many advantages which that great island possesses over its British rivals, may be reckoned one, of which every British colonist and merchant will feel the great importance—the reduction of the rate of exchange with Europe. (G.)

Many of the enemy merchants (French, Spanish, and Dutch) are now become too provident to lose the amount of the neutralizing commissions, by employing strangers as their agents. It has of late been a very ordinary practice with them to send a partner, or a relation, to the neutral country to which they trade, where he soon becomes, according to the indulgent rules of our prize courts, a neutral subject, either by domicil, or naturalization, or both; and then acts as general agent for the house with which he is connected in the belligerent state. A great many of the most eminent neutralizers in America are persons of this description; and some of them who had actually removed with their whole property to their native countries, during the last short-lived peace, have again modestly returned, for the benefit of neutral character, to the United States of America. (P.)

The following menace is truly ridiculous:

'The French and Spanish agents gravely tell us, that if we do not acquiesce in their own injurious pretensions, the government of America will *prohibit the exportation of flour and other provisions to the British West Indies, and starve our sugar colonies.* (S.)

We trust that no apology can be thought necessary for the unusual extent of our review of so valuable a tract, which is of more consequence than volumes of essays, &c., on common subjects.

ART. IX.—*The Mysteries of Neutralization;—or, The British Navy vindicated from the Charges of Injustice and Oppression towards Neutral Flags. By John Brown, of Great Yarmouth.* 8vo. 156 *pages.* Jordan and Maxwell. 1806.

THE subject of this pamphlet is so closely connected with the foregoing article, that it would have been highly improper to separate their review by any intermediate work. The objection to anonymous publications on subjects of national concern is removed from the unknown author of *War in Disguise*, by the corroborating evidence of the truth of the principal facts, brought forward by Mr. Brown, in his exhibition of undoubted authentic documents respecting the fraudulent devices and illicit practices of neutral powers, striking at the root of our colonial commerce, and endangering our naval superiority, upon which our weight in the political scale of Europe almost entirely depends.

We have already observed, under the former article, "that the aggressors in the offence of fraudulent neutralization, stimulated by our inveterate enemy, and his intriguing agents, have been loud in their complaints against the British government, for the few seizures and condemnations of neutral vessels and their cargoes in our prize courts, upon incontestable proofs of covering and protecting the property of our enemies; whilst they are totally silent respecting the fruitless remonstrances of the British merchants and planters against the shameful evasions, and the audacious encroachments on our maritime rights, by American, Prussian, Danish, and German neutralizers.

But the manly vindication of Mr. Brown, in his *revelation* of the *Mysteries of Neutralization*, does ample justice to the honour and integrity of the British navy, and fully exposes the shameful prostitution of *neutral flags*. He likewise shows the ingratitude of some of the neutral powers for the indulgence granted to their subjects by our prize courts, in conformity to the royal instructions of June 24, 1803. We shall carefully avoid a repetition of the same instances of fraudulent transactions as are stated by the author of *War in Disguise*, Mr. Brown having produced many others of a similar nature, proved by official documents, and making himself responsible for every charge he brings against the masked enemies of his country, pretending to be neutrals, in the present war.

In a short *advertisement*, the author informs the public, that for upwards of a twelvemonth he has been in possession of a

redundancy of original proof for the establishment of almost every fact mentioned in his interesting work. *All these original documents, upwards of one hundred in number, written in the Spanish, French, German, Dutch, and English languages, are verified upon oath, and deposited in the archives of the High Court of Admiralty of England.* He concurs in opinion with the former writer, 'that the very existence of the British empire depends on the speedy extirpation of the evil treated of;' and he concludes, in the following energetic lines:

'The immortal NELSON fell at the moment of unexampled victory *over our open foes.* A combat less brilliant and terrible indeed, but no less momentous, remains to be fought *with our enemies in disguise.* To secure a victory, the whole talent of the country should be engaged. Every source of discord and dissension should be laid aside, till the important contest between violated faith and national justice be decided. We shall always have the power of correcting domestic abuses; but perhaps the last golden moments that Providence may spare this empire to fix on an adamantine basis the pillars of her naval power are now fleeting away, and will soon have vanished for ever.—London, 15th January, 1806.'

What loyal subject of the United Kingdoms can read this awful notice, without shuddering at the alarming crisis, and offering up a fervent prayer to the Almighty Ruler of nations, that it may please him to inspire our *new administration* with wisdom and fortitude to repel the danger!

The first page of this corroborating tract presents us the following aphorism:

'Had the subjects of Prussia, and the petty maritime states, who claim the right of neutrality from Great Britain, openly joined the ranks of our enemies, their utmost united efforts could not have inflicted injuries an hundredth part so fatal to the British empire, as their base and venal traffic of neutrality has done.'

The full proof of this melancholy position will be found in the succeeding pages.

The author asks,

'If respect is due in our High Court of Admiralty to the fictitious documents, surreptitiously issued by a few obscure magistrates, who are grown rich by the grossest violation of their neutral character?—documents, as completely articles of traffic as the enemy's property which they are sold to cover. At Embden, Leer, Papenburg, Oldenburg, Varel, Norden, Altona, Hamburgh, North Bergen, &c. are upwards of *one hundred* neutralizing establishments, formed for the sole purpose of covering, by fraudulent documents, the vessels and merchandise belonging to the subjects of the belligerent powers. Few indeed, if any, of the neutralizers have common honesty.'

This is exemplified p. 7, and the parties named at full length.

'The lowest general computation of the number of vessels bearing the Prussian flag, but being the property of subjects of belligerent powers (at war with Great Britain), is *two thousand*, and the highest *three thousand* sail.'

Of the profits of this illegal traffic we may form a correct judgment by the following anecdote:

'A certain notorious neutralizer of Embden commenced business in 1803; his partner in Holland (or rather his principal) procured in a few months *six thousand tons* of Dutch and French property to neutralize. They gained in the course of nine months, by *tribute* money for the use of the Prussian flag, by profits on fabricated papers, and by the neutralization of French and Dutch merchandise at *one* per cent., nearly *five thousand pounds sterling!* Such are the enormous gains of *one* establishment at its very outset, and that of the middle rank of neutralizers! At this hour that establishment has no less than 200 sail of vessels belonging to our enemies, navigating, as its property, under false papers; and has safely conducted *hostile* property into *ostile* ports, to the value of *a million* sterling!'

As the author does not desire the public to ground their belief on his *ipse dixit*, he has thought proper to insert accurate translations of some original letters and documents, the better to convince them of the established system that is adopted. One of these letters we think it our duty to lay before our readers:—

'"Mr. C. F. Schroder, Embden.

'"*Amsterdam*, 27th August, 1805.

'"Sir,—We hereby request you to mention to us, and if it can be, by the return of the post, whether you are agreeable to charge yourself with the transmission of our expedition beyond the seas, and receive what we import from our foreign friends, chiefly of France and Spain; "to neutralize their goods and merchandize, and take their property under the protection of your name. In case of capture or detention, you must engage yourself to claim restitution, and take every step to effectuate that purpose, the same as though such merchandize were really and truly your own property."

'"As you must very well know, it will be necessary for you to maintain a *fabricated correspondence* with our friends, send them orders to purchase, and a certificate of property, *attested* by your magistrates, certifying that you have not ordered any goods from such correspondents to be transmitted to any other harbours; and which act of property the skipper must keep on board, with the bill of lading, and of which we should be very glad to have a copy, to see beforehand if such be properly worded. We have also to request of you, to let us know at *what price* you mean to charge *such certificates*; and *how much* for *neutralization* of *merchandize*; and if we find your conditions fair and reasonable, we shall shortly have opportunities of making use of your services, and to require from *four* to six *certificates*, each for an *entire cargo*.

'"We also request of you to inform us, upon what terms you can freight a vessel from *Embden* to *Corunna*, to take a cargo of wheat;

and also at what price the purchase of wheat may be made at your port.—You will have to correspond with our friends in Spain in the French tongue (which we suppose will not be difficult to you), as they understand neither German, nor Dutch, &c.

'Signed, WILLINK and D'ARIPPE.'

Other letters of the same nature, and blank burghers' briefs to entitle French, Dutch, and Flemish subjects to Prussian naturalization, the better to carry on their fraudulent evasion of condemnation as lawful prize in our admiralty courts, afford the most incontestable evidence of the extent of the evil, and of the general encouragement given to our enemies to increase their foreign commerce in neutral bottoms, to the great decrease of our own, and to the prevention of fitting out privateers, as in former wars, to annoy the enemy, and to enrich our merchants and ship-owners at their expense.

False acts or bills of sale are of the number of base transactions comprised in this conspiracy against the maritime rights of our brave countrymen, who are thereby deprived of the fruits of their valiant enterprises at sea.

We here insert the translation of an original document, called a *Renversal*, in which the neutralizer disavows any actual property in the vessel made over to him by the deed of sale, and solemnly promises to deliver up the same to the proprietor on demand:

'I, the under-signed *Carl Friedrich Schröder*, declare by these presents, that although, according to an act of sale, past before the *Post Fiscal Bluhms*, dated 22d inst mt, *Messrs. Jan Luitjees, Ruyl, and Son*, sold to me the brig named the *Juffers Anna Catharina*, commanded at present by Pieter Gregorysen, for a sum of 6,900 Dutch florins, *I never did pay the purchase money in any way direct or indirect, the sale being only a nominal one, done to bring the ship in my name, under the Prussian flag, and as such to be protected.* Therefore I, the under-signed, bind myself by these presents *as a man of honour*, that in case the said ship should be detained or carried into port by one of the belligerent powers, to reclaim the same, as though it were my own true property, and when it shall be requisite; *and to leave no means untried to give full effect to the claim, and procure restitution, all on account of the true proprietors of the abovementioned ship, being Messrs. Widow Frans Van Aken and Sons, of Ghent*, to whom, or to such persons who may hereafter become the proprietors by sale, *I bind myself to surrender* to them the said ship, on the first demand, the expenses occasioned thereby remaining on their account. *Done with good faith at Embden*, 26th June 1804.'

It is needless to quote any more of these documents, which, however, we recommend to the perusal of all classes of our commercial countrymen, our good citizens; to our representatives in parliament; and to our statesmen: they constitute a body of

evidence from page 27 to page 146—'and such,' adds our author, 'are the wrongs Great Britain endures, by the practice of neutralization as a traffic! Suh are the mysteries of this unholy act!' The writer could now if he pleased, and he very shortly will, publish a catalogue of 300 sail of neutralized enemies' vessels, to whom belonging, and by whom neutralized; of which every document is in good order, and of which every material proof of *neutral property* is *false* and *simulated!*

In the mean time, he proposes the following remedy:

'1. Let the High Court of Admiralty refuse credit to any document offered as proof of neutral property, which shall bear the signature of any (foreign) magistrate or officer detected in having wilfully and corruptly violated the duties of neutrality.

'2. Accredit no documents of property for vessels or cargoes of which the affidavits shall not have been administered in open court, and in the presence of the British consul or resident, who shall countersign the same, declaring that he saw the oaths duly administered.

'3. Accredit not any acts of naturalization in the Danish, Prussian, Oldenburg, Friezland, Varel, or Paapenburgh dominions or districts, but what shall bear the attestation of the minister of the parish (in addition to that of the amtman or civil magistrate) in which the person naturalized is said to reside, with the date of his first settlement there, and the place of his preceding residence.'

We are sorry to conclude with a confirmation of the charge brought by the first writer against some of our own people.

'The first,' says the present author, 'the greatest and most disgraceful of all domestic evils, exists in the base conduct of too many of our merchants, who, dead to all feelings of patriotism or honour, carry on a sordid commerce with our enemies,—and when the property of those enemies chance to be captured, they traitorously step in between the captor and the prize, and cheat our warriors of their rights. Mr. Jefferson, president of the United States of America, in his speech to congress, accuses our own merchants of carrying on trade with the enemies of their country! The fact may be true—it is to be feared it is: and shall we, for the purpose of indulging the dishonest traffic of a few knavish speculators (not deserving the honourable title of British merchants), endure such a stigma!—It would be unjust to demand satisfaction for injuries sustained by *foreign neutralizers*, if such criminals of our own growth remain unpunished.'

We earnestly hope that an extensive circulation of both these excellent pamphlets will produce speedy and effectual redress of this national grievance.

ART. X.—*The Morlands. Tales illustrative of the Simple and Surprising. By R. C. Dallas, Esq.* 12*mo.* 4 *Vols. Price* 1*l.* 1*s.* Longman and Co. 1805.

THE title of this work is rather singular, and requires some explanation. The Morlands are not in a certain sense two persons. A personage of this name introduces himself to us in the first volume, and relates the story of his life; that is to say, so much of his life as is comprehended between its commencement and that brilliant period in which the heroes of Novels usually arrive at great fortunes, lovely spouses, and all the other desirable things which a life is worth living for. In the fiction of a dialogue between the author and a friend, the latter makes some objections to the intended simplicity of the story; and being struck with a sudden thought, he proposes to take the hero into his own hands from the first chapter, and to write a story which shall be as remarkable for surprise as the other tale may be for its simplicity. The simple story occupies the three first volumes, and is the history of Mr. Morland. The surprising story occupies the fourth volume, and is the history of a Mr. Morland, whose birth and introduction into life authorise us to consider him as the same person: but his adventures are so different, that we are under the necessity of renouncing that supposition. By the author's name in the titlepage to the fourth volume, we perceive that the friend who is exhibited as the writer of the surprising story is also an imaginary being. It consequently remains to be shown in what respect these two separate novels, connected by plurality in the title and by a commencing chapter common to both, are rendered more interesting by this little manœuvre. For our part, we must freely confess that we see no merit in the contrivance. It is little better than an abortive joke; and as far as it goes, it has the infelicity of puzzling the reader instead of giving him pleasure. We shall therefore consider Mr. Morland the simple, and Mr. Morland the surprising, as two separate persons; and though our discussion of the value of Mr. Dallas's attempt to confound them together has not called upon us to speak with approbation of that endeavour, we shall not be less disposed to pay every proper attention to these two gentlemen in their separate capacities.

Mr. Morland whose history commences in the first volume, received the early part of his education at a school in Reading; having no knowledge either of his parents or any friends, except Mrs. Waller, a widow of a moderate income, who supported him with parental care. At the age of eighteen he was sent to Oxford to study divinity, with a view to an establishment in the church. When he had completed his twentieth year his benefactress died, leaving him altogether destitute. The curate of Reading, who communicated to him this distressing news, gave it as his

opinion, after some discussion, that no resourse was left but that of servitude. To this plan Morland assented, partly from the necessity of the case, and partly from some philosophical reasonings on the conditions and state of society which were urged by his friend.

With a tolerable wardrobe, a few books, and forty-three guineas, our hero launched into the world, with no other support than a letter of recommendation from the curate of Reading to the vicar of Holcomb. To this last gentleman, Mr. Whitaker, the young philosopher immediately repaired; and we have had the pleasure of accompanying him on his journey in the Bath coach, in a beautiful May morning; though a little incommoded by some fat passengers, who, though they pay no more than other people, are very apt to take an inconvenient share of the public vehicle, for their own accommodation. Mr. Whitaker, who seems to be a philosopher in conversation and even in sentiment, was one of that numerous class of moral reasoners who possess a vast stock of good notions, with sufficient readiness at displaying them, but are not very apt to recollect them in those occurrences of life which excite their passions. He is an irascible man, who knows the world sufficiently to talk of it with contempt and to bend to it with flexibility. His character is well drawn, and possesses a good deal of spirit.

Mr. Whitaker recommends Morland to employment by a letter to Mr. Jones near Exeter, but by mistake he is directed to the wrong family. The Joneses had been described to him as most worthy and highly amiable. He applies to a very different person. On entering the house of Mr. Jones of Pinhoe, he accosts several surly servants, who direct him onwards to find his own way into the premises; in compliance with which he meets with an adventure which, as a specimen of the author's manner, we shall give in his own words.

'A footman happening to cross the hall, at that moment, with a tray in his hand, I asked him, as he advanced to the stairs, to deliver a letter for me to Mr. Jones; on which he desired me to step into the right-hand parlour, saying, he would come to me as soon as he had set down the tray. I thanked him, and again doubting much whether the master of the people who had fallen in my way would answer the partial description of the vicar, I crossed the hall, and, without reflecting to whose person the man's direction referred, opened the door of the parlour on my own right-hand, and walked in.

'Never shall I forget my astonishment on finding myself in the midst of the family, who had just been taking their forenoon's repast. I knew not whether to retire or remain, till observing an encouraging look in the whole party, I ventured to shut the door. I held my hat fast in my hand, and remembering the vicar's lecture on bowing, I made what I thought an awkward kind of a bow. Had it possessed all the grace of Apollo, it could not have produced a more instantaneous effect: the family, not less surprised than myself, and taking

me for a gentleman—I had on my mourning-suit—all rose, and returned my obeisance. Confounded by the respect paid me by persons to whom I came recommended as a servant, I was frightened at the idea of producing my recommendation; and I verily believe, if I could have invented any plea for my intrusion, that I should have descended to a falsehood to relieve the oppression I felt at the moment: but truth served the purpose better, by presenting me a scene I should have lost had I departed unknown.

'A rapid survey of the countenances of the Joneses convinced me that the vicar's partiality had carried him a great length in his character of them: not a face in the group but was distinguished by traits of sourness; and indeed the children would have greatly belied their parents had this not been the case. The repetition of Mr. Jones's bow seeming to ask the nature of my visit, I collected all my courage to stand the result of my confession; and before I gave the vicar's letter, I endeavoured to soften the impression of its contents, by making the best excuse I could for my abrupt appearance. "Sir," said I, "I blush for the mistake I have occasioned—" "—Pray make no apology, sir;" cried Mrs. Jones with a smirking air—"won't you take a seat?" This misplaced civility was like a clap of thunder on my ears. I could have sunk into the floor—I wished my mourning-suit at Jericho.—"Madam," said I, "I am more and more confounded by your condescension, and scarcely now can bring myself to tell you that I come—recommended to you as a servant."

'The electric fluid itself is not more rapid in communication than the fire of low pride. The change of countenance was instantaneous through the whole circle. Mrs. Jones plumped herself down on her seat, the elder daughters followed their mamma's example, whispering and giggling; a younger daughter, about fourteen, stooped, as if to pick up something off the carpet, and, in rising, slid herself on her chair as if ashamed that she had quitted it; and the father, knitting his brows, continued surveying me from head to foot, while I strove to extricate myself from my embarrassment as well as I could; and I thought the best way was to present Mr. Whitaker's letter at once. Before I could get it out of my pocket, however, Mr. Jones vociferated; "Upon my word, sir, your presuming to thrust yourself into the room is no great recommendation." I declared it was accidental. "It can't be," said Mrs. Jones, "there are people enough about the house. My dear Mr. Jones, this fellow is an impostor; he neither looks nor speaks like a servant." I appealed to the letter, which I now gave to Mr. Jones, to remove the lady's suspicion of imposture; but far from having that effect, it served only to confirm it.

'The gentleman having jerked the letter out of my hand as I presented it, and read the direction, passed it unopened to his lady, eyeing me at the same time. "I would open it, if I was you, my dear," said she, giving him back the letter. "Oh no!" cried he, "by no means, I could not answer doing that."—"I would commit him then," replied she, "for depend upon it, there's something we don't understand at the bottom of this."—"Young man," said the magistrate, "you must give a good account of yourself, or I shall send you to prison. Who is this letter from?" I replied, "From Mr. Whitaker." "What Mr. Whitaker?" I said, "The vicar of Holcomb." "Very well! I know him: I see him sometimes at the sessions and meetings. Now,

for whom is this letter?"—"That, sir," said I, "the direction will show: I presumed it was for you."—"Yes, I find," cried he, "that you are a very presuming fellow." At this Mrs. Jones and the young ladies laughed heartily, conceiving it to be wit. After several renewed bursts of ha! ha! they composed their features into their usual state of solemn ugliness, and Mr. Jones proceeded thus: "Now, sir, this letter is not for me; and coupling this circumstance with the odd and suspicious way in which you have stolen into my house, I am fully warranted to take you for a thief till you prove yourself not to be one."' P. 100.

This language roused the gentlemanly feelings of our adventurer, who replied with so much spirit and good sense as alarmed the magistrate, and sent him, according to the custom of country justices, to consult Mr. Jonathan, his clerk. Instead of committing the involuntary offender against his pride, he determined to send him over to Mr. Jones, of Alphington, on the other side of Exeter. The residence of this gentleman is depicted in a masterly manner, and its respectable inhabitants make their first appearance on the stage as characters entitled to universal esteem. The blunder at Pinhoe was soon cleared up and laughed at; but it had already been productive of a serious misfortune to Morland. Respecting the subject of his application, Mr. Jones 'paused some moments, and then addressed me thus:—"Morland, Mr. Whitaker writes in very high terms of you, and I feel great pain to be forced to disappoint your hopes; but he did not rightly understand me. My establishment is full. The person I wanted was one to take a new situation, or rather to discharge the office of three, which in my affairs do not afford full employment even for one person—I mean those of steward, librarian, and secretary. I am in fact my own steward, and want only a man under my immediate direction, to call on my tenants, and keep my accounts. This being easily done, the same person must attend to the care of my books and the arrangement of my library, and also transcribe fairly whatever may be wanted. It requires a progress in education, knowledge of accounts, a good hand-writing, and some little acquaintance with letters. I remember I was not sufficiently explicit with Mr. Whitaker, being engaged on other business at the time."

'How did my ears drink in every syllable of this speech!—was it a golden dream, or a waking vision? "Oh sir," cried I, "since I am happy enough to engage your attention, suffer me to inform you, that my education has been far superior to what is required in the offices you mention; you can immediately put it to the test: I am confident I may undertake the situation you propose; and if you will have the goodness to make a trial of me, should you approve of my ability, I will serve you all my life with fidelity and affection, nor ever admit one mercenary thought into my mind."

'"Your language," replied Mr. Jones, with a countenance full of compassion, "convinces me that your attainments are above the station you appear in, and I feel now double pain in telling you, that but this very morning after breakfast, I engaged a young man who brought

me a strong recommendation from another friend. It would be unjust in me, however, to express any sorrow on the occasion, as he appears in every respect fit for the offices he has undertaken."

'A thunderbolt would have been more welcome than this terrible information. I turned pale, tears starting to my eyes soon overflowed my cheeks; I begged pardon in a confused manner; I knew not what I did. The contrast of the characters I had that day seen, the difference of the place to be filled, the delightful expectation excited by my reception, and the shocking reflection of missing such a situation by being a few hours too late, quite overcame me, and I had not even the power of utterance.'

Mr. Jones sympathised with him, offered him money, and promised to remember him in case he should be able to do him any service. On his return to the inn he was attacked by fever; to the great disquiet and alarm of the hostess:—an event which introduces Mr. Rundle, an excellent apothecary and good man; and likewise brings forward the simple and interesting story of William, an unknown youth who died in the same house, and was buried at Alphington,—having resisted all inquiries concerning himself; but having engaged Mr. Rundle in a solemn promise, that the body of a favourite dove, which he had stuffed and preserved, should be buried in the coffin with him, lying upon his breast. "And," said he, "if ever you should hear of a girl whose name is Amy, inquiring here for a missing stranger, tell her that her dove lies in the grave with William."

An interval of rural life now succeeds, in which Morland fixes his residence in the cottage of Ben Collins. Pleasing simple characters appear before us; but the story does not pause: for this family are indebted to Mr. Jones for ease and cheerfulness, and Mr. Jones is a personage who proves in the sequel to be of great importance to the story. The necessity for dispatch, however, obliges us to pass slightly over these secondary objects. Morland was recommended, by the same friend, to a menial situation at Broke-hall: the possessor of which, sir Nicholas Broke, is a taciturn gloomy character, and his lady a pretender to taste and refinement. Morland is engaged, but does not immediately enter upon his new employ. From the result of a conversation with her ladyship, his employment promises to be that of the superintendant of her theatricals.

In the interval Mr. M. cultivates music, by the assistance of Murphy, one of the band belonging to a regiment quartered in the neighbourhood. It was with a view to serve this man, and still more to gratify a wish to call at Mr. Jones's, that he took occasion to go to Alphington; where he learned that all the family were absent except young Jones, the only son. An intimacy takes place with mutual confidence between these two young persons; and the story of Jones occupies the greatest part of the second volume. It possesses a high degree of interest. We

will not injure it by a tame abridgement. The outline is, that Jones is in love with Sophia Nevill, one of the daughters of a respected friend and neighbour of his father. Before he had disclosed his affection in any other manner than by those indications which are perfectly understood by susceptible minds, a false friend (Mr. Montague) first gave her reason to conclude that Jones, then absent, had formed another attachment; and afterwards, while on a visit at Mr. Nevill's, as the admitted suitor of Sophia, this unprincipled villain contrived by means of an opiate to gain possession of her person. On Jones's return he declares his love. The mind of Sophia appears actuated by a strange combination of partiality for Jones, with a determination never to be the wife of any other man but Montague. The concealment and obscurity of this part of the story powerfully fix the attention. Montague, who is absent, is anxiously expected by the family. Jones seeks him. An explanation follows, in which Montague apologizes for having attempted to supplant his friend; but renounces any further proceeding, from a conviction that Sophia's heart is fixed on Jones; and he gives him a letter to release her from every supposed engagement. Jones returns joyfully to Sophia, who falls into hysterics at sight of the contents. While Jones had quitted the room an instant for hartshorn, lady Broke enters, takes up the letter and peruses it. She flies to distribute the scandal. A duel ensues between Jones and Montague. Aggravated and distressing consequences ensue, which are well drawn. Sophia retires from the world. Jones still continues attached to her, but her determination is to remain for ever in privacy. Mr. Jones's family are, of course, averse to his wishes.

Morland's expectations of patronage and friendship from the family of the Joneses were destroyed, by a persuasion that he is the agent of a secret correspondence between young Jones and Sophia. He therefore accepted the situation at Broke-hall. On this new scene a variety of characters appear, the votaries of folly and dissipation. Murphy the musician is recommended by Morland to assist at a mask for celebrating miss Broke's birthday. A remarkable and hitherto unexplained circumstance here claims attention; namely, that sir Nicholas Broke manifests an aversion to Morland, amounting even to terror; insomuch that he determines to enable the object of his aversion to quit the house, and finish his studies at Oxford. Other events however intervene. On a night preceding the intended festival, as Morland was retiring to his room he found young Broke entering his apartment, apparently with the intention of performing some trick; to promote which he blew out Morland's candle. Sir Nicholas immediately followed, accompanied by Murphy the musician. He entered the room, fired a pistol at the bed, and shot his own son. Lights were brought. The baronet's daugh-

ter had concealed herself in Morland's bed. Morland was hurried to prison, under the accusations of seduction and murder. The prison scenes and events have great merit. But we can no further enter into them than to say, that the Amy of poor William is confined in the same place, upon the committal of Jones of Pinhoe, in consequence of her declaration that she was come to Exeter to discover a great murder that had been committed. On the benevolent errand of relieving this young creature, Sophia Nevill, and the friend under whose protection she had placed herself, visit the prison. They converse with Morland, who, not knowing them, speaks of the Joneses as his friends, the former misunderstanding having been for some time cleared up. Young Jones visits Morland, and meets the object of his love. Omitting many incidents, we hasten to Morland's trial, which is preceded by much business and explanation; and gradually prepares for the development and termination of the story. The trial is impressive. It ends in the complete vindication of Morland, and still more in the confusion and guilt of sir Nicholas; who, by the murder of (sir Edward Broke) Morland's father, had acquired possession of the family estate. This business is thus explained, in an address of young Jones to the judge:

"" My lord," said Jones, " permit me to preface the grounds of my accusation with a few words respecting my friend. I cannot but think that the interference of Providence in his case is very manifest; and I am proud to say, I believe no man ever deserved it more. Unknown, and in adversity, his good sense, his feelings and his manners made an impression on the mind of my father, that induced him to talk kindly and warmly of him, and I loved the man through such praise, before a seemingly accidental meeting established a friendship between us. From that time I have had his heart open to hourly inspection, and I consider myself as the most fortunate of men in having engaged its esteem. Had it not been for the breaking off of the trial by the indignation of the jury, I should have testified his benevolence to the miscreant whom your lordship's justice has devoted to the pillory, and I should have spoken circumstantially to virtues with which I am well acquainted; but I shall now content myself with this short tribute of friendship, and proceed in developing to your lordship the shocking event that has hitherto buried my friend in obscurity, and robbed him of his rights.

"" My lord," continued Jones, " there is a lady in court, near your lordship, Mrs. Alton, who was applied to about a fortnight ago by the keeper of the jail, in behalf of a young woman of the name of Norman, who was committed to prison in a deranged state of mind. She is an inhabitant of Overton, where Mrs. Alton has long resided. Talking rationally at intervals, she mentioned her knowledge of that lady, to whom the keeper's wife communicated the unhappy situation of the poor girl, who proved to have been a favourite of Mrs. Alton's, to whom her family is known. Mrs. Alton procured her discharge and took her home. For some time she continued wild,

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having short intervals of recollection. With proper care she recovered entirely. Having talked incoherently of a murder that was to be found out, of her William, and asked for her dove, she was questioned when it was thought safe, and, being treated affectionately by Mrs. Alton, unbosomed herself to that lady. She told her that her father was taken ill last spring, soon after Mrs. Alton left Overton; that for some time he had a hope of recovering, but at last his mind seemed very heavy, and nothing that he took did him good, so that he was given over: that when he was sure he was dying, he was very unhappy, and called together her uncle Christopher, her brother, and herself, to his bedside, where he told them he was so miserable that he could not bear the thoughts of death, and after crying, and praying God to forgive him, confessed that he had been employed by the present sir Nicholas Broke to kill sir Edward, his wife and infant son, who were returning home after sir Edward had for many years been supposed to be lost at sea; that he was sir Nicholas's butler at the time, and was tempted by the great offer he had from him to commit the horrid deed: that nobody knew of sir Edward's return, as he had written only to his father, supposing him to be still alive, and the letters had fallen into the hands of the present baronet who had taken possession of Broke-hall: he told them that being sent to meet the travellers at Portsmouth, as sir Edward had requested, with money, he had contrived to take them separately along the shore to an unfrequented spot where he had previously prepared a grave, in which having perpetrated the deed, he buried them. That having brought no servant and little baggage with them from Havre-de-grace, where they had embarked, they had received no attention at the inn at which they put up, and were never enquired for by the people: he said that he had been particularly charged to make away with the child, but that he was quite disarmed by its smiles and its affectionate manner of clinging to him, which made him shed tears of remorse for what he had done, and he resolved to take care of the infant, then about a year old: that he accordingly ordered a chaise, saying that its parents had sent him for it, and he left Portsmouth with the child and luggage without being suspected, and travelled across the country to Overton, where his brother was married and settled in a small farm; with whom he left the little boy, giving him the name of Edward Morland, till he went back to satisfy sir Nicholas, and receive his reward; that the baronet, for this service, gave him the sum of two thousand five hundred pounds to buy a small estate near his brother's farm, and settled two hundred a year upon him for his life; that he immediately married, and resided upon his own estate to farm it: that not being able to endure the sight of the child whose parents he had murdered, he got his brother to carry him to a widow lady at Reading, who having no child of her own, was glad to take charge of him, both because she wished for a child, and because she received an ample stipend for it annually; that in time losing his wife and several children, he was visited with severe compunctions, which made him increase the sum he paid to the lady, whose name was Waller, on condition that the boy should be brought up as a gentleman, and that she should never inform him or any body that she was paid for taking care of him: he confessed that he had found among other things in sir Edward's trunks, the certificate of his marriage, and another of

the birth and baptism of his son, which he had kept more through a wicked motive than with any intention of doing justice, for he meant, if ever sir Nicholas should become slack in his payments, to let him know they were preserved: he owned that he was frightened at the same time at having them in his possession, and that he had hid them in many different places, till at last a dove, which his wife was fond of, meeting with an accident and dying, he had the bird preserved, and in the inside of it concealed the certificates, which were still there: that after this confession he besought them to make every reparation for him they could, by disclosing the circumstances to young Morland, who was undoubtedly sir Edward Broke; and that he then went into a fit of raving, and died."' P. 424.

Poor Amy and her brother, extremely affected at the disclosure, agreed with their uncle that a discovery should be made; but to this the uncle afterwards objected. It was with this intention that William left his home, and was afterwards taken ill and died. Permission was now obtained to open his grave. The dove was found containing the certificate; and various other proofs establishing the right of Morland to his new title and estate. To complete and conclude the series of adventures, Sophia is persuaded to give her hand to young Jones, whose sister at length becomes the bride of Morland. All the other personages are disposed of according to poetical justice; those who deserve to be happy become so, and the others are disposed of according to their respective demerits.

Thus concludes the first tale of the Morlands: we shall take a short notice of the second hereafter. This tale is certainly much superior to the general course of novels. The language is natural and chaste, the business in general interesting and rapid, and the moral effect is such as will often instruct and can never offend.

ART. XI.—*A Restoration of the Antient Modes of bestowing Names on the Rivers, Hills, Valleys, Plains, and Settlements of Britain, &c. By G. Dyer. 8vo. 314 Pages. Price 7s. Boards.* Exeter. Printed for the Author. London: Sold by Johnson; Longman and Co. &c. 1805.

THOSE writers who have most successfully depicted the manners and customs of the oldest inhabitants of a country have sought the highland districts for that purpose; and those who wished to trace the remains of the aboriginal language of any nation, have found it in the names of rivers, hills, mountains, &c. The votaries of this latter pursuit have undoubtedly been few: nor should this be matter of surprise; for it requires no little share of patience, industry, and ingenuity, to throw any light on a subject involved in so much obscurity, and in which the judgment is so often liable to be led astray by tradition and fancy.

The great Camden did not think it beneath him, however, to employ a portion of his precious time in the investigation of the antient names of places, which have triumphed over time and successive victories. He was followed by Baxter, Dr. Pryce, Irwine, and Beauford; the latter of whom wrote a number in the *Collectanea de Rebus Hibernicis*, on this neglected branch of antiquarian research, but was without exception the most unsuccessful of all the labourers who ever entered that field.

If Mr. Dyer, in the present work, had divided his etymological inquiries into Celtic and Gothic, we are persuaded that he would at least have avoided that confusion which pervades a large portion of his work in consequence of his having mixed the one with the other. The Celts undoubtedly were the most antient inhabitants of the north-west of Europe. All historians who have touched on the subject concur in this opinion: Frisch and Leibnitz have pointed out innumerable places in Germany, which at this day bear the names this people imposed on them. The Celtic language, in which our author appears to be very conversant, should have taken the lead, and then the Saxon and Danish (dialects of the Gothic tongue) should have followed. This division would at the same time have served to point out the extent of the conquest of those foreigners, and their power in effecting changes in the old names of their habitations. The Romans were content to leave these local appellatives as they found them, with the addition of a termination, or the change of a softer letter for one of a harsher sound; but even this has disguised so many vocables, that it would not be an easy task to strip them of this refinement, and to exhibit them in their native orthography. Mr. Dyer remarks that

'In early times it was necessary for inhabitants passing rivers, to be informed whether they were *little, shallow*, and *passable*; or *great, deep*, and *impassable:* and the names of streams we conceive included augmentatives and diminutives expressive of such particulars.'

This observation is well founded, if carried to a certain length; but Mr. D. has so frequently availed himself of it, that almost every page flows with rivers, streams, *little, shallow, great, deep*, &c. Jones's Circles of Gomer should have been sufficient to have put him on his guard in this respect. He had two great precursors in Baxter and Lewis, men eminently qualified for the task they had undertaken—

'The most common way of naming hills,' say they, 'was by *metaphors*, drawn from the several parts of the human body. Thus some were called *y voel bald pate, y benglog* a *skull, tall* the *forehead, cern* one *side* of the *face, ael* an *eyelid, llygad* an *eye, rhyn* a *nose, genow* a *mouth, pen* the *head, munugl* the *neck, braich* an *arm, bron* the *breast, kest* the *belly, clun* the *hip, cevan* the *back, ystlys* the *side, bontin* the *buttock, eggan* a *leg*, and *troed* a *foot*.' P. 155.

This key, so essential a part of local etymology, it not forged by the hand of fancy; it will be found to be true when applied to the mountains and hills of Ireland, and the highlands of Scotland.

The Celts and Saxons were very happy in the imposition of their local epithets: like so many medals, they expressed the very *image* of the place; which ought to be much attended to in all researches of this kind; and which, from having been in some measure attended to, has solved a number of doubts, and fixed the meaning of several leading words, on which at this day there is scarce any difference of opinion: and yet we find on some occasions that Mr. Dyer is not disposed to accede to this general assent. It is with a kind of reluctance that he yields up *lea*, *ley*, *leigh*, *street*, *stoke*, *berry*, *worth*, to the Saxons, though all these words are found at this day in Varelius, the oldest northern lexicographer that has yet appeared in print, and perhaps the most learned. That the reader may judge of the etymological talents of Mr. Dyer, we shall quote a passage on an etymon that has given birth to more conjectures than any other, and with less satisfaction.

'London. Below the ground whereon Ludgate was situated, lies *Fleet Ditch*. *Lud* or *Lod* is Gaelic for a pond; and this word also denotes the stream which runs through this ditch. Authors however assert that *King Lud* changed the name of this city, and built the gate: Geoffery of Monmouth states, that he altered the old name of *Troynovant* to *Lundain*, or *Lud's Town*, notwithstanding he was stoutly opposed herein by Nennius: and *Sammes*, in examining *Verstegan*, exhorts us to "let the king enjoy the honour of that structure, whose very mute statue, then on the gate, seemed to call out against those who would deprive him of it." The last author would not admit that Ludgate took its denomination from Lud, and asserted that the final syllable was not British, but Saxon.

'It is the lot of writers to err; but Mr. Sammes, taking for granted what his disloyal antagonist had advanced, found no resource for refuting him, but by reference to the statue! The word *Lud*, however, may imply a pond, pool, ditch, and even water or stream; and from the Gaelic word *Geata*, gate is also derived; and hence *Lud* and *Gate* were originally terms of the oldest British language.

'Other derivations which have been given for London, are from *Luna*, a name of Diana—from *Lindus*, a city of Rhodes—from *Lugdus*, a British prince—from *Llan-Dyn*, the temple of Diana—from *Lundain*, the Thames bank town—from *Llhwn*, a wood, and *Dinas*, a town—from *Lhong*, a ship, and *Dinas*, a town—and from *Lon*, a plain, and *Don*, a hill. Every writer on London exhibits a new etymon, and the reader will expect me to follow custom.

'Two derivations of this name naturally arise from its situation, although a rational one has not even to this day been attempted.

'First, *Lon* may be derived from *on*, a synonyme of *an* water, with *l* prefixed: thus we have the river *Lon* or *Lone*. This letter *l* has been proved a servile, and in the Hebrew is accounted a preposition implying *upon*, &c. but in streams, it seems like other prefixes, used only to form proper names. *Lon* then will mean *stream*: *D* may have been

added to strengthen the sound of the first syllable, or taken as a prefix to *on* territory, for better connecting the compound word; *London* will mean, in either case, the stream territory.

'Secondly, *Lon* may otherwise, from the Gaelic, imply a *marsh* or *lake*, and *Dun* now *Don*, a fastness, fortress, or land; and *Londun* or *London* may mean the marsh or lake fortress, or land.' P. 216.

On the whole, the most fastidious critic in this department would in justice be obliged to acknowledge that Mr. Dyer is entitled to a considerable share of praise, on the ground of industry and ingenuity; and that he would be entitled to more still, if he had not followed some of those fanciful word-mongers, who have induced many to think that etymology is a mere dream.

ART. XII.—*The History of the Manners, Landed Property, Government, Laws, Poetry, Literature, Religion, and Language of the Anglo-Saxons. By Sharon Turner, F.A.S.* 8vo. 520 *Pages. Price* 10*s.* 6*d.* Longman and Co. 1805.

[Concluded from page 87.]

WE now resume our account of this elaborate and interesting work. In the book on the laws of the Anglo-Saxons, the progress of legislation is well traced, and its prominent features accurately marked. Of the criminal law we shall select Mr. T.'s account of the compensations assigned for personal injuries, and the trial by ordeal. The former is thus given:

'The compensation allotted to *personal injuries*, arising from what modern lawyers would call assault and battery, was curiously arranged. Homer is celebrated for discriminating the wounds of his heroes with anatomical precision. The Saxon legislators were not less anxious to distinguish between the different wounds to which the body is liable, and which, from their laws, we may infer that they frequently suffered. In their most antient laws these were the punishments.

'The loss of an eye or of a leg appears to have been considered as the most aggravated injury which could arise from an assault; and was therefore punished by the highest fine, or 50 shillings.

'To be made lame was the next most considerable offence, and the compensation for it was 30 shillings.

'For a wound that caused deafness, 25 shillings.

'To lame the shoulder, divide the chine-bone, cut off the thumb, pierce the diaphragm, or to tear off the hair and fracture the skull, was each punished by a fine of 20 shillings.

'For breaking the thigh, cutting off the ears, wounding the eye or mouth, wounding the diaphragm, or injuring the teeth so as to affect the speech, was exacted 12 shillings.

'For cutting off the little finger, 11 shillings.

'For cutting off the great toe, or for tearing off the hair entirely, 10 shillings.

'For piercing the nose, 9 shillings.

'For cutting off the forefinger, 8 shillings.

'For cutting off the gold finger, for every wound in the thigh, for wounding the ear, for piercing both cheeks, for cutting either nostril, for each of the front teeth, for breaking the jaw-bone, for breaking an arm, 6 shillings.

'For seizing the hair so as to hurt the bone, for the loss of either of the eye-teeth, or of the middle finger, 4 shillings.

'For pulling the hair so that the bone became visible; for piercing the ear, or one cheek; for cutting off the thumb nail, for the first double tooth, for wounding the nose with the fist, for wounding the elbow, for breaking a rib, or for wounding the vertebræ, 3 shillings.

'For every nail (probably of the fingers), and for every tooth beyond the first double tooth, 1 shilling.

'For seizing the hair, 50 scættas.

'For the nail of the great toe, 30 scættas.

'For every other nail, 10 scættas.

'To judge of this scale of compensations by modern experience there seems to be a gross disproportion, not only between the injury and the compensation in many instances, but also between the different classes of compensation. Six shillings is a very inconsiderable recompense for the pain and confinement that follows an arm or the jaw-bone broke, and it seems absurd to rank in punishment with these serious injuries the loss of a front tooth. To value the thumb at a higher price than the fingers is reasonable; but to estimate the great toe at 12 shillings, the little finger at 11s. the fore finger at 8s., the ring finger at 6s. and the middle finger at 4s., seems a very capricious distribution of recompense. So the teeth seem to have been valued on no principle intelligible to us: a front tooth was atoned for by 6s., an eye-tooth by 4s, the first double tooth 3s., either of the others 1s. Why to lame the shoulder should occasion a fine of 20 shillings, and to break the thigh but 12, and the arm but 6, cannot be explained, unless we presume that the surgical skill of the day found the cure of the arm easier than of the thigh, and that easier than the shoulder.

'Alfred made some difference in these compensations, which may be seen in his laws.

'He also appointed penalties for other personal wrongs.

'If any one bound a ceorle unsinning he was to pay 10 shillings; twenty if he whipped him, and thirty if he brought him to the pillory. If he shaved him in such a manner as to expose him to derision, he forfeited ten shillings, and thirty shillings if he shaved him like a priest, without binding him; but if he bound him and then gave him the clerical tonsure, the penalty was doubled. Twenty shillings was also the fine if any man cut another's beard off. These laws prove the value that was attached to the hair and the beard in the Anglo-Saxon society.

'Alfred also enjoined that if any mar carrying a spear on his shoulder pierced another, or wounded his eyes, he paid his were, but not a wite. If it was done wilfully the wite was exacted, if he had carried the point three fingers higher than the shaft. If the weapon was carried horizontally he was excused the wite.' P. 306.

The ordeals and legal punishments are thus described in the eighth chapter:

'We have a full account of the Anglo-Saxon ordeals of hot water and hot iron in the laws of Ina.

'The iron was to be three pounds in weight for the threefold trial, and therefore probably one pound only for the more simple charge, and the accused was to have the option whether he would prefer the water "ordal" or the iron "ordal."

'No man was to go within the church after the fire was lighted by which the ordeal was to be heated, except the priest and the accused. The distance of nine feet was to be then measured out from the stake of the length of the foot of the accused. If the trial was to be by hot water, the water was heated till it boiled furiously, and the vessel that contained it, was to be iron or copper, lead or clay.

'If the charge was of the kind they called anfeald or simple, the accused was to immerge his hand as far as the wrist in the water, to take out the stone; if the charge was of threefold magnitude he was to plunge his arm up to the elbow.

'When the ordeal was ready, two men were to enter of each side, and to agree that the water was boiling furiously. Then an equal number of men were to enter from each side, and to stand along the church on both sides of the ordeal, all fasting. After this the priest was to sprinkle them with holy water, of which each was to taste; they were to kiss the gospels, and to be signed with the cross. All this time the fire was not to be mended any more; but the iron, if the ordeal was to be by hot iron, was to lay on the coals till the last collect was finished; and it was then to be placed on the staples which were to sustain it.

'While the accused was snatching the stone out of the water, or carrying the hot iron for the space of nine feet, nothing was to be said but a prayer to the Deity to discover the truth. The hand was to be then bound up and sealed, and to be kept so for three days; after that time the seal and the bandage were removed, and the hand was to be examined to see whether it was foul or clear.

'From this plain account, the ordeal was not so terrible as it may at first sight appear; because independently of the opportunity which the accused had, by going alone into the church, of making terms with the priest, and of the ease with which his dexterity could have substituted cold iron or stone for the heated substances at the moment of the trial, and the impossibility of the detection, amid the previous forms of the holy water, the diminution of the fire, prayers on the occasion, and the distance of the few spectators; independently of these circumstances, the actual endurance of the ordeal admitted many chances of acquittal. It was not exacted that the hand should not be burnt, but that after the space of three days it should not exhibit that appearance which would be called foul or guilty. As the iron was to be carried only for the space of nine of the feet of the accused, it would be hardly two seconds in his hand. The hand was not to be immediately inspected, but it was carefully kept from air, which would irritate the wound, and was left to the chances of a good constitution to be so far healed in three days as to discover those appearances, when inspected, which were allowed to be satisfactory. Besides, there was no doubt much preparatory training, suggested by the more experienced, which would indurate the epidermis so much as to make it less sensible to the action of the hot substances which it was to hold.

'Ordeals were forbidden on festivals and fast days.

'Of the single ordeal it was ordered, that if the persons had been accused of theft, and were found guilty by it, and did not know who would be their borh, they should be put into prison, and be treated as the laws had enjoined.

'An accused mint-master was to undergo the ordeal of the hot iron.

'The ordeal might be compounded for.

'The law of Æthelstan added some directions as to the ordeal. Whoever appealed to it was to go three nights before to the priest who was to transact it, and should feed on bread and salt, water and herbs. He was to be present at the masses in the mean time, and make his *offerings* and receive the holy sacrament on the day of his going through the ordeal, and he should swear that with folc-right he was guiltless of the accusation before he went to the ordeal. If the trial was the hot water, he was to plunge his arm half way above the elbow on the rope. If the ordeal was the iron, three days were to pass before it was examined. They who attended were to have fasted, and not to exceed twelve in number of either side, or the ordeal was to be void unless they departed.

'A thief found guilty by the ordeal was to be killed unless his relations redeemed him by paying his were and the value of the goods, and giving borh for his good behaviour.

'The command of the ordeals must have thrown great power into the hands of the church; and as in most cases they who appealed to them did so from choice, it is probable that whoever expressed this deference to the ecclesiastical order were rewarded for the compliment, as far as discretion and contrivance would permit.

'The ordeal was a trial not a punishment. The most popular of the legal punishments were the pecuniary mulcts. But as the imperfection and inutility of these could not be always disguised—as they were sometimes impunity to the rich, who could afford them, and to the poor, who had nothing to pay them with, other punishments were enacted. Among these we find imprisonment, outlawry, banishment, slavery, and transportation. In other cases we have whipping, branding, the pillory, amputation of limb, mutilation of the nose, and ears, and lips, the eyes plucked out, hair torn off, stoning, and hanging. Nations not civilized will have barbarous punishments.' P. 330.

The poetry of our ancestors is discussed at some length with appropriate quotations. Among their arts and sciences many curious facts and researches present themselves. Under the head of music, we observe that the organ with bellows is more antient than is generally supposed.

'The organ was in use among the Anglo-Saxons. Cassiodorus and Fortunatus mention the word organ as a musical instrument, but it has been thought to have been a collection of tubes blowed into by the human breath. Muratori has contended that the art of making organs like ours was known in the eighth century only to the Greeks; that the first organ in Europe was the one sent to Pepin from Greece in 756, and that it was in 826 that a Venetian priest, who had discovered the secret, brought it into France.

'A passage which I have observed in Aldhelm's poem, De Laude Virginum, entirely overthrows these theories; for he, who died in 709, and who never went to Greece, describes them in a manner which shows that he was acquainted with great organs made on the same principle as our own;

Maxima millenis auscultans organa flabris,
Mulceat auditum ventosis follibus iste,
Quamlibet auratis fulgescant cætera capsis.

This is literally, "Listening to the greatest organs with a thousand blasts, the ear is soothed by the windy bellows, while the rest shines in the gilt chests."

'Dunstan, great in all the knowledge of his day, as well as in his ambition, is described to have made an organ of brass pipes, elaborated by musical measures, and filled with air from the bellows. The bells he made have been mentioned before. About the same time we have the description of an organ made in the church at Ramsey. "The earl devoted thirty pounds to make the copper pipes of organs, which resting with their openings in thick order on the spiral winding in the inside, and being struck on feast days with the strong blast of bellows emit a sweet melody and a far-resounding peal."

'In 669, Theodore and Adrian, who planted learning among the Anglo-Saxons, also introduced into Kent the ecclesiastical chanting, which Gregory the Great had much improved. From Kent it was carried into the other English churches. In 678 one John came also from Rome, and taught in his monastery the Roman mode of singing, and was directed by the pope to diffuse it amongst the rest of the clergy, and left written directions to perpetuate it. Under his auspices it became a popular study in the Saxon monasteries.

'We have a pleasing proof of the impressive effect of the sacred music of the monks, in the little poem which Canute the Great made upon it. As the monarch, with his queen and courtiers, were approaching Ely, the monks were at their devotions. The king, attracted by the melody, ordered his rowers to approach it, and to move gently while he listened to the sounds which came floating through the air from the church on the high rock before him. He was so delighted by the effect that he made a poem on the occasion, of which the first stanza only has come down to us:

Merie sungen the muneches binnen Ely
Tha Cnut ching reuther by:
'Roweth cnites noer the land
And here we thes muneches sang.'

Merry sang the monks in Ely,
When king Canute sailed by:
'Row, cnihts, near the land,
And let us hear the monks' song.'

There are many antient MSS. of the Anglo-Saxon times which contain musical notes.' P. 446.

CATALOGUE.

ART. 12.—*Traité élémentaire d'Astronomie physique, par I. B. Biot, &c. or, an Elementary Treatise of Physical Astronomy, by I. B. Biot, of the National Institute of France, &c. designed for the use of the National Lyceum, and the secondary schools* Paris, Bernard, *sold by* Dulau, London. *2 vol. 8vo. with fifteen plates, price*

THIS able writer, on a subject which has been often treated and copied from one author to another, has written an excellent elementary treatise, in a manner which gives originality to his performance. His method is natural and appropriate. He supposes the pupil to be unacquainted with astronomy, and even with cosmography, and to have all those prejudices respecting the celestial motions, and the figure of the earth, which arise from the habitual testimony of our senses, and he gradually conducts him to discover by reasoning, the true mechanism of the system of the earth. The facts which constitute the basis of astronomical knowledge, are not therefore simply announced, but the student is led to a positive knowledge of the means by which these facts have been discovered and established. With this view the author very precisely explains the methods of observation which have served to discover the phenomena themselves, and his results are established upon observations really made.

By the course of proceeding thus adopted, very simple calculations answer every purpose; namely, such as require only the first notions of arithmetic and geometry.

Four divisions, or books, comprehend the whole of this work; the the first indicates the general phenomena, and the means of observing them, by the natural method of induction. The second book contains the theory of the Sun; the third that of the Moon; and the fourth, that of comets, planets, and satellites.

The text is very clear, and contains nothing beyond the first doctrines of mathematics. Trigonometrical operations occupy the notes occasionally at the foot of the page; and other more ample notes are placed at the end of each book.

This work carefully drawn up, being after a plan so well adapted to its object, and with the advantage of the friendly assistance of Lalande, Laplace, and other eminent men, may naturally be expected to prove an instructive and valuable performance. In truth we find it so. It is well calculated to answer the purposes of popular instruction, and will greatly add to the well-earned reputation of its author.

ART. 13—*An Introduction to Natural Philosophy, illustrated by copper-plates, by William Nicholson: the fifth edition with improvements. 2 vol. 8vo. with twenty-five plates, 16s. boards.* Johnson. 1805.

THE elementary work before us, having been used in our public schools for near a quarter of a century, does not require our suffrage in support of its general character, as a clear and perspicuous text book. We have only to announce that we find, from the author's advertisement, that ill health and other impediments obliged him to have recourse to the assistance of Mr. Accum, who has re-written the Chemical Section according to the modern theory; and of Mr. T. Churchill, who has added a Section on Galvanism. These improvements, as well as the rest of the work, have nevertheless passed under the author's inspection. The plates to the new Sections have been re-engraved, with additional drawings.

ART. 14.—*A Treatise on the Teeth of Wheels, Pinions, &c. demonstrating the best forms which can be given them for the various purposes of machinery: such as mill work, clock work, &c. and the art of finding their numbers.—Translated from the French of M. Camus, with addit ons, illustrated by fifteen plates. 8vo. 144 pages, price 10s. 6d.* London, Taylor and Co. 1806.

SUPERFICIAL or merely practical mechanics, are seldom aware of the considerable effects of friction and oblique action at the teeth and pinions of wheels. The determination of such forms of these parts as shall transmit mechanical actions with the least possible loss, is a subject of mathematical investigation, and it is well known that the section of Camus's *Course of Mathematics*, is one of the best treatises extant upon this subject, so important to the extensive works in arts and manufactures, which are carried on by machinery in our country. The publisher of this translation has offered a valuable acquisition to the English student, as well as to practical men, by placing this work in the list of English literature.

The Section of M. Camus treats of the proper form for the teeth of wheels, and likewise the art of ascertaining the numbers of wheels and pinions, with their application to the principles of trains. To these the translator has added the generation of the cycloid and epicycloid, and their practical application to the form of the teeth of wheels. He has taken this from Imison's Elements of Science and Art. It constitutes an useful addition.

ART. 15—*Portable Mathematical Tables, containing logarithms of numbers, proportional parts; artificial sines and tangents; natural sines and tangents to every degree and minute of the quadrant, and a Table of square and cube roots to No.* 180. *By Thomas Whiting, Master of Keppel House Academy.* London. 18*mo. Price* 4*s. boards.* Longman and Co. 1806.

MILITARY gentlemen and all descriptions of persons, who have occasion to make surveys and computations, under circumstances

where their baggage is necessarily limited in quantity, are well aware of the advantage of good portable instruments and correct tables in a small volume. The editor of the tables now before us, mentions an instance of a military man who had the tables bound up from an old copy of *Sir Jones Moore's Compendium*, for the convenience of the pocket. We have done the same, and had it in contemplation a few months ago to recommend an undertaking of this kind to a bookseller, when the beautiful pocket volume of stereotype tables by Lalande came under our notice. Mr: Whiting, in his preface, gives a very satisfactory account of the means he made use of, to insure the accuracy of his work. The table of logarithms extends from 1 to 10,000, and is carried to six places of figures, exclusive of the index. The arrangement is the same as that first adopted by *Nathaniel Rowe*, in which the unit figures of the natural numbers stand at the head of ten columns. The table of sines and tangents is carried to the same number of decimal figures; but the differences are not brought in. The logarithmic lines form a separate table from the natural, but these have the same number of decimals. The type is almost twice as large as that of Lalande; but as the figures have the modern improvement of being all exactly of the same height, it will be a doubt, with some computers, whether the eye can catch a particular number so readily as when the characters have heads and tails; as is the case with our older types, and those at present used by the French. We regret, for more reasons than one, that the very ingenious editor of these Tables did not first see the small work of Lalande. If he had, he would have seen the great advantage of deep firm ink and good press work, which do so much honour to the French printing houses. And as he has adopted a better system of arrangement for the common logarithms than that of Lalande, so we think he would not have fallen short of him, in the trigonometrical canon, if he had been aware of the facility with which the differences could have been inserted. It seems to have been a principle with the French mathematician to render the taking out as easy as possible. He has for this reason rejected the sixth figure, and followed the original method of placing his entire number opposite the entire logarithm at every variation of the unit figure, and he has constantly retained the indices. His compositor's work is by this means augmented at least by two fifths. But though his tables are thus made to occupy more room, it may be questioned, whether this first labour be not amply repaid, by the ease and certainty with which the computer takes out his numbers.

To sum up our remarks: While we admit that Mr Whiting's tables are capable of a few improvements, which we doubt not he will give them, in a future edition, they do, nevertheless, at present constitute a most useful and acceptable work. They are printed upon a strong and fine wove paper, and are offered to the public at a price which will be thought very reasonable, and bestowed with pleasure by those who cultivate the practical mathematics. Masters of establishments for education have long been in want of such a book.

ART. 16.—*Lecons de Physique de l'ecole Polytechnique. Par J. B. Pujoulx, or. Lectures on Natural Philosophy for the use of the Polytechnic School. By J. B. Pujoulx.* 8vo. 292 *pages, with ten plates* Paris *printed, and sold by* Dulau and Co. *Price* 8s. *stitched.*

THESE lectures are principally confined to the general properties of bodies; extension, impenetrability, elasticity, the effect of capillary tubes, heat and the instruments for measuring it, and the phenomena of the atmosphere. Out of twelve lectures, the five last are employed on the last mentioned subject. The work may be considered as an acceptable set of essays upon the several matters; but it is not entitled to much praise for the order and arrangement of its parts. It appears too limited in its plan, for an introductory book, to be used in any class of study.

ART. 17.—*Geschichte Schwedens; or the History of Sweden. By Fr. Ruhs.* 2 *vol.* 8vo. *published at Halle.*

AT the commencement of the first volume of this work appears a memoir on the sources and materials of the History of Sweden. The history itself is continued in the same volume to the time of the union of Calmar in 1397. The five books which compose it contain, 1. The events preceding the establishment of christianity in Sweden, or until the reign of *Olof* about the end of the twelfth century. 2. Those from the reign of *Olof* to the end of the dynasty of *Stenkil* in 1129. 3. From 1129 to 1250. 4. From 1250 to 1321, or until the death of *Birger*. And 5. The events from 1321 to the union of Calmar in 1397.

The sixth book, or first of the second volume, embraces the epocha from the union of Calmar to the reign of *Christopher* of Bavaria in 1441. The seventh that from 1441, to the time of the death of *Charles* VII. in 1470. The eighth contains the events from the death of *Charles* VIII, to that of *John* in 1513. Lastly, the ninth contains the history of the interval from the reign of *Christiern* II. to his departure in 1520.

ART. 18.—*Russland unter Alexander dem Erste; Russia under the reign of Alexander the First. By Storch.*

THE 13th, 14th, and 15th, livraisons of this work, in large octavo, have been published at Leipsic: they contain—1. The history and present state of the forestier administration in Russia; 2. The state of the court of Petersburgh in December 1801; 3. Proceedings of the medico philanthropic Society; 4. Notices respecting Finland; 5. Progress of public instruction; 6. Three letters of Capt. *Crusenstern* from Kamtschatka; 7. Journal of Dr. *Espenburg* from the Brazils to Kamtschatka; 8 Manufactures and fabrics of Russia; 9. Emancipation of his peasants by prince *Kurakin*; 10. The construction of canals in Russia: the three following canals are finished; that of Novogorod, that along the river Zena, and that of Oginsky; 11. Antiquities found in Russia; 12. Progress of rural economy in that empire; 13. State of the imperial Academy of Arts; 14. On the construction of cottages in Russia, Finland, Livonia, and Courland, with three plates; 15. Acts

of patriotism and benevolence; 16. Levies for the army; 17. Construction of embankments in Georgia; 18. Progress of vaccination in Russia.

ART. 19.—*Raccolta de' autori Italiani sull' Economia politica; di Pietro Custodi; or a Collection of Italian Authors on Political Economy.* 8vo. Milan.

THIS work is intended to comprehend statistical as well as theoretical works relative to the circulating medium, price of provisions, nature of imposts, national manners and conduct, &c. Many Italian authors have distinguished themselves on these subjects, and the editor has rendered an eminent service to his country by publishing the preceding collection with notes and explanations: It is intended that it shall consist of about thirty volumes, containing the works of *Borghini, Scarafsi, Serra, Davanzati, Turbolo, Montanari, Bandini, Pagnini, Neri, Galiani, Carli, Algarotti, Beccaria, Genovesi, Zanoni, Verri, Paoletti, Briganti, d'Arco, Filangieri, Vasco, Mengotti, Palmieri, Gennaro di Cantalupo, Delfico, Corniani and Gianni.*

This collection will be followed by enquiries and researches concerning the industry and commerce of Italy, from the most remote antiquity to the time of the revival of letters and the arts; and the editor will conclude with a table of the actual state of the several objects of political economy in Italy, and the other nations of Europe.

Eight volumes have already appeared, which are well printed, upon fine paper.

ART. 20.—*Grundsaetze der National-Oekonomie, etc.; or Principles of National or Political Economy. By E. H. Jacob.* 548 *pages, in* 8vo. *published at* Halle.

THE author has consulted the works of the French and English economists, and among others those of *Letrosne* and *Adam Smith*, though he does not establish his theory on the principles and results deduced by those writers.

The authors of the *Journal generale* assert that his theory is more systematical, clear, and dense than that of Smith. It is treated in three parts or principal divisions.

The first part contains 1. Explanation of the terms national wealth; 2. The origin of that wealth; 3. The causes and parts which constitute the value of things: 4. Augmentation of national wealth; 5. Influence of civil or political institutions upon the national prosperity.

Part II. is employed on 1. The primitive revenues of a nation and their distribution; 2. The circulating medium.

Part III. treats of 1. The different kinds of consumption and their effects; 2. The natural, particular, and public consumption.

The most general results of this treatise are, 1. That edicts, public arrangements and instructions, in favor of commerce and industry, have often produced effects contrary to the intention of the legislators, and, 2. That the most certain means of augmenting the national wealth is to allow an unlimitted liberty to commerce and industry.

Upon the last position there will probably be many differences of opinion. It appears to be true in the abstract; but would most probably be found false or inapplicable in practice. The regulations to which human industry is subjected are much more extensive than those which flow from the government of a state. Bodies of men employed in particular branches of industry or commerce, may, and very often do, unite to form and enforce resolutions or private laws, which are not only inimical to the public good, but to their own general interests. Casual circumstances may render one nation ruinously dependant upon another, for articles of the first necessity, even in cases where no political interference or general cause may have given the ascendancy; and the innumerable means by which capitalists do in effect seek their own immediate advantage, to the oppression of their inferiors, and the ultimate overthrow of their own trade, are probably of as much consequence as the edicts of the sovereign, mistaken and destructive as they often are. Until these exceptions to the general position of unlimited liberty can be removed, it may be as advantageous for any state that its rulers should interfere, as that they should leave ignorance and avarice to regulate itself.

ART. 21 —*De la Ligue Hanséatique, de son origine, ses progrès sa puissance et sa constitution politique jusqu'à son déclin au seizième siècle ; par P. H Mallet, ancien professeur d'histoire ; or An account of the Hanseatic league, its origin, its progress and its political constitution until its decline in the 16th century. By P. H. Mallet. Published by* Manget, *at* Geneva, *and by* Tilliard, *at* Paris. 8vo. 1805.

As the subject of this treatise has been well discussed by others, the writer has found abundant materials for the volume he offers to the public. It is an extended outline of the Hanseatic history, and not the history itself; in which the author has combined and regularly disposed a series of new and singular facts, very interesting to the reader, and well calculated to afford subjects for reflection and research. He has availed himself of the *Essai historique sur la ligue Hanseatique* of Professor Busch of Hamburgh ; *L'histoire des peuples slaves ou vandales* of Gerhardi ; that of *Commerce d'Allemagne* of Fischer; and the particular histories of the northern nations, Germany, Russia, Prussia, England, the Low Countries, and other states which have had political or commercial relations with the league; the histories or chronicles on this express subject, by *Verdenhagon* and *Villebrand*; and the various treaties bearing relation to this subject. But the most important source to which M. Mallet has applied, is the learned and profound work of Sartorius, Professor at Gottingen, which was published in 1802, in part, under the title of *Geschichte des hanseatischen Bunds*, &c. or the history of the Hanseatic league.

After speaking of the times which preceded the union, the events which prepared it, and the circumstances by which it was favored, Mr. M. brings us to the period when it definitively took place; namely, about the termination of the thirteenth century. From this

time the league gradually augmented, by the formation of various establishments of commerce, counting houses and factories; it assumed privileges; established monopolies and extended itself into England, Germany, Sweden, Denmark, Russia, and the South of Europe. Its commerce soon became exclusive. In order to maintain its power and force, it founded political laws and instituted the mode of its interior government and external relations. It often happens that avarice and jealousy destroy the best combined societies: this befel the Hanseatic league by the defection of the Dutch towns, and the revolution of Lubeck. In spite of the ruinous effects of wars and ambition, in spite of many disastrous events, its influence and its commercial relations in the extensive countries of the north, continued for a long time to subsist; it even supported itself with considerable reputation as late as the close of the sixteenth century, the epoch when its fall commenced; of which the author, according to his plan, gives a sketch of the general and particular causes. The last general diet was convoked 1630, but without any effect, for most of the associated towns sent no representatives. Nevertheless, Lubeck, Hamburgh, and Bremen, continued from that time constantly united with the honorable title of the Hans towns. Greatly fallen from the splendour they partook with the ancient league, they nevertheless continued to maintain commercial agents in different places. They have been under the immediate protection of the empire, which in different treaties guaranteed the rights which have been admitted as belonging to them.

It is proper to take notice of the general error of considering the ancient Hanseatic league as a mere association of merchants, stimulated by views of gain. The perusal of Mr. M.'s work will shew that it has often been directed by more generous views, in the design to confirm, extend and communicate the advantages of liberty to other states. Its industry, prosperity, and information; and its laws, institutions, and many points of its history afford very important lessons. Its chiefs were skilful magistrates; its seamen able commanders; and many useful consequences have flowed from its establishment. But all its glory hath passed away;—and, in the words of our author, "an illustrious name is all that remains, with a mixed recollection of pride and regret which, at least for the towns which inherit the name, may hereafter produce a noble and useful emulation."

ART. 22.—*The Architectural Antiquities of Great Britain displayed in a series of select Engravings, representing the most beautiful, curious, and interesting Ancient Edifices of this Country, with an Historical and Descriptive Account of each Subject. By John Britton. Parts I. II. and III. 4to. price 10s. 6d. each.* London, Longman and Co. and Taylor, &c.

THIS masterly work consists of separate histories or accounts of the several objects exhibited in a number of beautiful engravings. The author in his prospectus, observes as a fact justly regretted,

that many fine English buildings are entirely obliterated; and others of singular beauty are daily falling a prey to the dilapidations of time, and the neglect or destructive hand of man. Correct delineations and accurate accounts of those that remain, to dignify and ornament the country, constitute the decided object of this work. The engravings are therefore *near views* of such buildings as are distinguished for their antiquity, curiosity, and elegance; drawn and engraved with scrupulous accuracy; and where the subject requires it, illustrated by enlarged representations of particular parts, and by plans or sections. The descriptive accounts are calculated to define the styles and dates of ancient buildings, and ultimately to develope the history of Saxon, Norman and English literature.

It is engaged that the work shall be published in parts every three months. Each part will contain six, seven, or eight engravings, with letter-press descriptions of each subject. Four of the plates will be finished in the best style, and the others will be principally illustrative of the former, and executed in a stile to correspond with the respective subjects. The parts now before us afford very respectable testimony of the spirit and ability with which the Author has acted up to his engagements. Instead of any falling off, the engravings in the latter part are evidently superior to those which were published in the first, though that part is fully entitled to the patronage which appears to have followed the work. A very respectable list of promoters of the work, by communications and correspondence, is given upon the wrapper, and contains names which, from their particular eminence in the subjects discussed, must give a high value to the present and future prospects of this undertaking.

The subjects are Part I. The Priory Church of St. Botolph, Colchester; the Priory Church of Dunstaple; Layer Marne, House, Essex; St. Nicholas Church, and the Abbey Gate-way, at Abington. Part II. contains the history of King's College Chapel, Cambridge, with seven engravings most exquisitely drawn and executed. They are, a north west view of the Chapel; the west front; the south entrance porch; the interior view, looking westward; shaded section of part of the south side within; shaded plan of the groining and section of the roof; and ground plan with the groining, &c. of the roof. Sixteen pages of letter-press include the account of this magnificent structure, erected at a period when the ecclesiastical architecture of Great Britain had attained its highest degree of perfection, and executed with such skill and success as, to use the expression of Horace Walpole, "have formed a work sufficient to ennoble any age."

The third part which was published last Christmas, contains an "Essay towards an History of Temples and round Churches," with eight plans and views of the churches of St. Sepulchre at Cambridge, and at Northampton, and also the Temple Church, London.

Fables ancient and modern, adapted for the use of Children from three to eight years of age. By Edward Baldwin, Esq. in 2 vols. 12mo. adorned with 73 copper plates. Price 8s. London, Hodgkins.

FABLES are short simple narratives, directed to enforce a single moral. In these compositions, the personages, by a very ancient license, are not expected to be supported with any high degree of probability. The belly and the members are allowed to have their separate inclinations and notions of justice. They act upon these notions after discussion and deliberation; and fatal consequences ensue from their mistakes. Vipers and files, lions and foxes, meet and discuss the various subjects of fable; and are poetically remunerated or punished according to their respective deservings. These compositions have kept their ground through every age, and in every stage of refinement. In early times the sensations of men occupied their time more than their reflections. They were full grown children. In later times, when the state of society demands more of cultivation and research, children are still delighted to ascribe discernment and powers of action to the inferior animals around them.

Mr. Baldwin praises fables as the happiest vehicles of instruction; but he thinks them too simple, and generally too concise. He has written an entire sett, in which the old narratives are given in a new form. His narration is clothed with concomitant circumstances, which produce a more intimate acquaintance between the infant reader and the personages of the fable; and he has constantly addressed him with the language he most probably would have employed if the child had sat upon his knee for amusement. The greater part of his fables have a happy termination, and he has introduced his leading objects with such clear and distinct explanations as a child would be most likely to ask for in the course of such a communication.

From this account it will be seen that Mr. B's fables are not a common place collection, but possess much novelty and interest. The style is far superior to that of any fables in our language. It is spirited and elegant; though we cannot help excepting against a few words and phrases as being too familiar.

We shall only add that the engravings are all made from original designs, many of which abound with character. As a specimen of this author's manner we will, without selecting, give two of his fables which succeed each other,

"*The poor Farmer and the Justice.*

A POOR farmer once came to the house of a rich justice of the peace. Having told the servant at the door that he had something of importance to communicate, he was led through a lane of five or six footmen, by several parlours, into the drawing room where his worship was sitting. The justice, who fed every day upon turbot and venison, was very ill of the gout, reclining in his elbow chair, and with

his foot supported upon a velvet cushion in great pain. The farmer, who had a great deal of work, and no superfluity of provisions, had not a pain or an ache about him. The farmer pulled off his hat, scraped his foot upon the floor, and stood very humbly at the further end of a long table.

Well, fellow, said the justice, what dost come to me about?

An please your worship, said the farmer, I have a sad story to tell.

Hah! you have always sad stories to tell. You little farmers are for ever falling out among yourselves, and then you come and plague me with your quarrels.

But this is all between me and your worship. I have an unlucky bullock that is for ever breaking out of pasture, and now he has got into your worship's best field of corn, and has spoiled a matter of half an acre. Now I want to know what you would have me do in the case.

Well, said the justice, I cannot but say that thou art an honest fellow, to come and tell me of it thyself: and as that is the case, I shall merely send my bailiff to look at the waste, and what he says it comes to, thou must pay. I shall besides expect, as thou saist that thy bullock is an unlucky one, and for ever breaking out of pasture, that thou shalt kill him immediately.

Bless your honour! said the farmer; what was I saying? I have only two or three harmless cows in the world. No; it is your honour's famous red bull, that frightens all the children, and that neither locks nor bars can confine, that has broken into my corn, and terrible work he has made of it. To be sure I thought I was ruined. But, being as how your worship talks of sending your bailiff to see what the damage comes to, and killing the bull immediately, why I am satisfied, and I humbly thank you.

The justice was terribly ashamed of himself. If the farmer had said at first that it was the justice's bull that had done all the mischief, I am afraid he would have set a very different face on it. But he thought he could not sit there as a justice, and say that there was one rule for a rich man, and another for a poor one. So he sent his bailiff, and paid the waste, and the poor man was contented with this, and excused his worship from killing the bull.

When the farmer went home, he did not half like what he had done. Says he to his wife, Meg, I have told a sort of a lie, and this money will never prosper with us. I will carry it to the church-porch, and have it laid out in bread for the poor in the workhouse; and another time I will rather stand by the loss of half a field of corn, than not tell the honest truth at once.

The Ass in the Lion's Skin.

An ass is a very useful and a very patient animal; one would have expected therefore that every body would have thought of him with respect. To be sure he is not half so handsome as a horse, and his

coat is apt to be ragged; but, poor fellow! he cannot help that. The only noise he is able to make is called braying, and you never heard a noise more contemptible and disagreeable. But the worst of him is that he is very slow and awkward in his motions; whatever you do, my dear child, take care not to be slow and awkward in going about it.

A poor ass had long been the sport of all the boys in a village; they shouted and hooted after him, and frightened the poor creature very much; they sometimes beat him and threw stones at him; for vulgar and ragged boys are apt to be cruel, they have never been taught any better; then the ass ran and galloped away from them as fast as he could. All this happened in a country where lions live; I suppose in Africa.

One day this poor ass came to a place where he saw a lion's skin lying on the ground. How I wish I were a lion! thought the ass. Then, instead of these naughty boys frightening me, I should be able to frighten them. Sometimes they have thrown an unlucky stone, which has made me lame for several days; but, if I were a lion, I would not hurt them, I would only terrify them soundly.

Thinking thus, the ass turned over the lion's skin: it was a very fine one. It would make a nice, warm coat for me, thought the ass; and with no more ado he began to put it on. He rolled himself up very snug in it, and pulled down the skin of the lion's head over his face. He then looked at himself in the river. I am vastly like a lion, thought the ass: I dare say I can make my tormentors think I am one; they are only silly boys. So away he went to try.

The ass, quite proud of the new appearance he had put on, trotted along toward the village. Presently he came to where some boys were playing at marbles. To be sure the trotting of an ass is not very much like the port of a lion; but the boys were too much frightened to observe that. They thought they should be eaten all up in a moment. They screamed; and, in their hurry to get away tumbled over one another. They then got up and ran; and away trotted the ass after them.

This succeeded wonderfully well the first day, and the ass was delighted to terrify these naughty boys, who had so richly deserved it. The next day he came again; but he thought the boys did not run so fast as they had done before. He knew that the most alarming thing even in a lion is his tremendous roarings, and he determined to roar too. So he opened his mouth as fiercely as he could; but, alas! instead of a roar, there came out nothing but a bray. It was so loud a bray, that all the fields resounded with it. The boys were astonished. One or two of the boldest stopped, and began to look suspiciously at the pursuer. When any body pretends to be what he is not, if you stop to examine him, it is all over. Aha! Mr. Donkey, said they, is it you all this while? A cheat! A cheat! Cheats are always found out.

The boys however somehow came to know, that, if the ass had happened to be a lion in reality, he had determined not to hurt a bone in their skin; and they resolved not to tease him any more. They

sometimes rode upon him, when their father wanted any thing from the market-town ; but they did not disturb him when he was feeding. And now, instead of running away the moment they came in sight, he would trot to meet them, and rub his head against them to tell them how much he loved them, and would eat the thistles and the oats out of their hand : was not that pretty ?

CORRESPONDENCE.

A LETTER has been received from S Y. P. who desires us to correct a mistatement at page 23 of our work, where *a first rate Theorist* is said to have abandoned the system of his work on Political Justice. Taking it for granted, which we readily admit to him, that the author there spoken of is Mr. Godwin, our correspondent refers us to that writer's last publication on the subject, namely, his Reply to Dr. Parr, Mr. Macintosh, and others, which was published in 1801. He desires us in particular to advert to the concluding paragraph, where Mr. G. considers himself personally as nothing, in comparison with the important cause the Political Justice was intended to plead. He says, he is willing, if Dr. Parr pleases, to take shame to kimself for all the oversights in that book, which have been so eagerly seized and so emulously taken advantage of by his opponents. The question at issue is, as he says, " whether any extraordinary improvement shall ever be expected to take place in society.". He argues that the human imagination is capable of representing to itself a virtuous community, where every thing shall be consistent, and where granting the first position of the Doctrine, all the inferences follow so clearly that it seems impossible to elude their force. He proceeds to argue, that, in other eminent cases, what the heart of man is able to conceive, the hand of man is strong enough to perform;—that Milton and Shakspeare have equalled all that we can imagine of literary and poetical composition ;—that the virtuous actions, recorded in the page of history, are not excelled by any imaginary circumstances or acts..... and after an ardent address in favor of the respect due to man, he concludes with the words, " For myself, I firmly believe, that days " of greater virtue, and more ample justice will descend upon the " earth ; and in the mean time I will not hold it for my consolation " and luxury, fondly to imagine that the throne of ignorance and " vice is placed on so firm a basis that it can never be removed."

We are not desirous of making any remarks upon any subject which can be cleared up by an appeal to facts. Our Correspondent is undoubtedly right, in maintaining that Mr. Godwin has not abandoned his work on Political Justice. The reviewer of Adeline Mowbray is therefore unfounded in his general assertion in this respect. But that writer has directed the Editor to say, that his expression, though too general, was intended at the time he wrote it, to be applied to the practical rules in the Political Justice, and particularly that doctrine to which Mrs. Opie has ascribed the misfortunes of Adeline.

Jones, Printer, Chapel-Street, Soho.